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OPHTHALMIC
SCIENCE AND PRACTICE

A HANDBOOK

OF

OPHTHALMIC SCIENCE AND PRACTICE

BY

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WITH ILLUSTRATIONS

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PREFACE.

In the preparation of the following work, it has been my endeavour to produce concise descriptions and typical illustrations of all the important affections of the eye.

With one exception the coloured plates have all been taken from cases met with in the course of clinical work, chiefly at the Royal Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital, St. Mary's Hospital, and the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields. With regard to the drawings of these and the other illustrations, I have received valuable suggestions and assistance from Mr. E. Noble Smith.

The chapter on Refraction has been jointly written by my colleague Mr. Adams Frost and myself, and that on colour-vision is entirely his work.

My best thanks are due to my friend and colleague Mr. Anderson Critchett for the kind way in which he has allowed me to make use of any cases coming under his, or our joint, care at St. Mary's Hospital, and for many valuable practical suggestions as to diagnosis and treatment.

I also have to thank Dr. E. J. Edwardes for considerable help in the chapter on the Optic Nerve and Retina, more especially with regard to the views of Continental writers.

Finally, I am indebted to Mr. Adams Frost and Mr. Arthur K. Willis for their valuable help and suggestions in passing the book through the press.

77 WIMPOLE STREET, CAVENDISH SQUARE, W.
May 1884.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

THE EYELIDS.

PAGE

Anatomy and physiology—Ophthalmia tarsi—Hordeolum—Chalazion—Dermoid cyst—Nævi—Xanthelasma—Epithelioma (Rodent ulcer)—Papilloma—Molluscum contagiosum—Sarcoma—Chancre—Gumma—Blepharospasm—Ptosis—Trichiasis—Entropion—Ectropion—Epicanthus—Injuries—Wounds—Burns—Ankyloblepharon—Symblepharon . 1

CHAPTER II.

THE LACHRYMAL APPARATUS.

Anatomy and physiology—Diseases of the lachrymal gland—Hypertrophy—Sarcoma—Extirpation—Cysts—Fistula of gland—Displacement of puncta—Slitting up canaliculus—Probing—Obstruction of canaliculi and of nasal duct—Abscess of lachrymal sac—Fistula of sac . . 29

CHAPTER III.

THE CONJUNCTIVA.

Purulent conjunctivitis—Gonorrhœal ophthalmia—Ophthalmia neonatorum—Muco-purulent conjunctivitis—Granular conjunctivitis—Phlyctenular conjunctivitis—Membranous conjunctivitis—Pterygium—Pinguecula—Amyloid degeneration—Xerosis 46

CHAPTER IV.

THE CORNEA.

Anatomy and physiology—Oblique focal illumination—Inflammation—Interstitial keratitis—Punctate keratitis—Vascular keratitis (Pannus)—Peritomy—Inoculation—Jequirity ophthalmia—Phlyctenular keratitis—Suppurative keratitis—Abscess—Onyx—Hypopyon—Ulcers (superficial, deep, serpiginous)—Paracentesis—Saemisch's operation—Opacities of the cornea—Tattooing—Transplantation—Deposits—Anterior staphyloma—Enucleation of the eye—Artificial eyes—Conical cornea—Wounds—Foreign bodies—Tumours—Epithelioma—Sarcoma. 68

CHAPTER V.

THE SCLEROTIC.

PAGE

Anatomy and physiology—Canal of Schlemm—Ligamentum pectinatum—Capsule of Tenon—Sclerotitis—Episcleritis—Contusions—Rupture—Wounds 109

CHAPTER VI.

THE TUNICA VASCULOSA.

The iris and pupil—The ciliary body—The choroid—The lymphatics of the eye—Iritis—Serous iritis—Plastic iritis—Suppurative iritis—Posterior synechia—Cyclitis—The normal fundus—Choroiditis (serous, plastic, disseminated)—Pseudo-glioma—Purulent choroiditis—Syphilitic choroido-retinitis—Central choroiditis—Myopic crescent—Posterior staphyloma—Tubercle of choroid—Rupture of choroid—Sympathetic irritation—Sympathetic ophthalmitis—Tumours—Gummata—Miliary Tubercle—Sarcomata—Congenital affections—Irideremia—Coloboma—Persistent pupillary membrane—Iridectomy—Iridodesis—Iridotomy . 114

CHAPTER VII.

THE OPTIC NERVE AND RETINA.

Anatomy and physiology of the optic nerve—Ophthalmoscopic appearance of the optic disc—The physiological cup—Sclerotic ring—Anatomy and physiology of the retina—Appearance of retina—Hyperæmia of the disc—Optic neuritis (Papillitis)—Optic nerve atrophy—Optic nerve hæmorrhages—Opaque nerve fibres—Ischæmia of the retina—Embolism of the retinal arteries—Retinal hæmorrhages—Retinitis—Albuminuric retinitis—Diabetic retinitis—Leucocythæmic retinitis—Syphilitic retinitis—Pigmentary retinitis—Detachment of retina—Glioma of retina—Pseudo-glioma 164

CHAPTER VIII.

AMAUROSIS, AMBLYOPIA, AND SOME FUNCTIONAL DISORDERS OF VISION.

Amaurosis—Tobacco amblyopia—Amaurosis in Infancy—Hemiopia—Hysterical and cerebral hemianæsthesia—Night-blindness—Malingering . 203

CHAPTER IX.

THE VISUAL FIELD AND THE PERIMETER.

The visual field—The perimeter—Scotomata—The blind spot—McHardy's perimeter—Priestley Smith's perimeter—Importance of perimetry—Field of fixation—The angle alpha 213

CHAPTER X.

COLOUR-VISION AND ITS DEFECTS.

(By W. Adams Frost, F.R.C.S.)

PAGE

Solar spectrum—Complementary colours—Young's theory—Young-Helmholtz' theory—Hering's theory—Congenital defects of colour-vision—Total colour-blindness—Complete blindness for one of the fundamental colours—Incomplete blindness for one of the fundamental colours—Incomplete blindness for all three—Methods of testing colour-vision—Holmgren's wools—Thomas's arrangement of Holmgren's wools—Frequency of colour-blindness 227

CHAPTER XI.

ON THE CRYSTALLINE LENS.

Anatomy of lens—Suspensory ligament—Cataract—Varieties of cataract—Causes—Symptoms—Treatment—Artificial pupil—Solution—Needle operation—Linear operation—Suction operations—Extraction of the entire cataract—Preliminary iridectomy—Flap operation—Graefe's linear operation—Modifications of Graefe's operation—Accidents and complications of extraction—Extraction of the lens in the capsule—Pagenstecher's operation—Macnamara's operation—After treatment—Spectacles—Opaque capsule—Dislocation of the lens 246

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE VITREOUS HUMOUR.

Anatomy—Muscæ volitantes—Opacities in the vitreous—Degenerative changes—Abnormal fluidity—Synchisis scintillans—Foreign bodies—The electro-magnet—Cysticercus—Pseudoglioma—Hæmorrhages . 286

CHAPTER XIII.

GLAUCOMA.

Symptoms—Premonitory—Increased tension—Cupping of disc—Pulsation of vessels—Contraction of visual field—Varieties—Pathology—Treatment—Secondary glaucoma 293

CHAPTER XIV.

ERRORS OF REFRACTION.

Section I.—OPTICAL PRINCIPLES.

Laws of refraction—Refraction at parallel surfaces—Refraction through a prism—Refraction at single spherical surface—Refraction through a biconvex lens—Images formed by spherical lenses—Spherical aberration—Chromatic aberration 311

PAGE

Section II.—THE EYE CONSIDERED AS AN OPTICAL INSTRUMENT.

Construction of the eye—Donder's schematic eye—Frost's artificial eye—Accommodation and presbyopia—Optical defects of the eye—Visual angle and visual acuteness—Snellen's test types . . . 321

Section III.—THE ERRORS OF REFRACTION.

Myopia. Definition—Symptoms—Pathology—Prevention . . . 330
Hypermetropia. Definition—Far- and near-points—Symptoms . . 335
Astigmatism. Refraction at an astigmatic surface—Varieties of astigmatism—Vision in simple astigmatism 338

Section IV.—LENSES USED IN TESTING REFRACTION:
THE OPHTHALMOSCOPE.

Trial lenses—Trial frame—Ophthalmoscopes—Direct ophthalmoscopic examination—Indirect method—Difficulties to be overcome . . 341

Section V.—METHODS OF ESTIMATING REFRACTION.

i. Testing by trial lenses—ii. Other subjective tests—iii. Testing by direct ophthalmoscopic examination—iv. Testing by indirect method—v. Testing by mirror alone at a distance—*a.* Fundus-image test—*b.* Shadow test 350

Section VI.—GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Use of mydriatics—When full correction should be ordered—Whether glasses should be worn constantly—Correction of presbyopia . . 373

CHAPTER XV.

AFFECTIONS OF THE OCULAR MUSCLES.

Anatomy and physiology—Associated movements—Strabismus (false, paralytic, concomitant)—Angular measurement of strabismus—Operations for strabismus—Nystagmus—Affections of the intraocular muscles 378

CHAPTER XVI.

DISEASES OF THE ORBIT.

Cellulitis—Acute abscess—Chronic abscess—Periostitis—Distension of frontal sinus—Exophthalmic goitre—Tumours—Pulsating exophthalmos—Injuries and foreign bodies 403

APPENDIX 415
SNELLEN'S READING TYPES 417
LARGE TEST TYPES . . . . . . *To face* 420
INDEX 421

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

CHROMO-LITHOGRAPHIC PLATES.

FIG.
1. **Epithelioma of Eyelid**
2. **Epithelioma of Cornea**
3. **Epithelioma of Cornea**
To face p. 10

1. **Ciliary Region (normal)**
2. **Corneal Corpuscles and Nerve Fibrils**
3. **Anterior part of Cornea**
4. **Section of Ulcer of Cornea**
5. **Section of Cornea in Pannus**
To face p. 68

1. **Pannus**
2. **Pterygium**
3. **Local Keratitis**
4. **Interstitial Keratitis**
5. **Punctate Keratitis**
6. **Ulcer of Cornea (healing)**
7. **Phlyctenular Conjunctivitis**
8. **Plastic Iritis**
9. **Severe Plastic Iritis**
10. **Posterior Synechiæ**
11. **Hypopyon**
12. **Blood in Anterior Chamber**
To face p. 74

1. **Sarcoma of Cornea**
2. **Cells from Tumours**
3. **Sarcoma of Choroid**
4. **Section of Choroid**
5. **Structure of Lens**
6. **Lens Fibres**
To face p. 108

FIG.
1. **Section of Ciliary Region in Iritis Serosa**
2. **Section of Ciliary Region in Iritis Plastica**
3. **Section of Ciliary Region in Iritis Suppurativa**
To face p. 127

1. **Normal Fundus**
2. **Normal Fundus**
To face p. 134

1. **Disseminated Choroiditis**
2. **Disseminated and Central Choroiditis**
To face p. 138

1. **Myopic Crescent**
2. **Posterior Staphyloma with patches of Choroidal Atrophy**
To face p. 142

1. Section through Optic Disc—Normal
2. Section through Optic Disc—Optic Neuritis
3. Section through Optic Disc—Optic Neuritis
To face p. 166

1. Section of Retina—Normal
2. Section of Retina—Hæmorrhagic Retinitis

FIG.
3. Section of Retina—Albuminuric Retinitis *To face p.* 168

1. Physiological Cup
2. Hyperæmia of Optic Disc *To face p.* 176

1. Neuro-Retinitis
2. Neuro-Retinitis with hæmorrhage *To face p.* 177

1. Atrophy of Optic Nerve
2. Atrophy of Optic Nerve and Retina *To face p.* 181

1. Opaque Nerve Fibres
2. Opaque Nerve Fibres *To face p.* 185

1. Embolism of Central Artery of Retina
2. Rupture of Choroid *To face p.* 186

1. Albuminuric Retinitis with Hæmorrhages
2. Renal Peri-Arteritis with Hæmorrhages *To face p.* 190

1. Pigmentary Retinitis
2. Pigmentary Retinitis (advanced) *To face p.* 194

1. Detachment of Retina
2. Detachment of Retina *To face p.* 196

1. Pseudo-glioma
2. Glioma of Retina
3. Glioma of Retina

FIG.
4. Glioma of Retina *To face p.* 200

1. Visual Field—Optic Atrophy
2. Visual Field—Hemiopia *To face p.* 206

1. Visual Field—Normal
2. Visual Field—Commencing Optic Atrophy *To face p.* 216

1. Visual Field—Chronic Glaucoma
2. Visual Field—Pigmentary Retinitis *To face p.* 222

1–13. Tests for Colour-Blindness *To face p.* 240

1, 2. Dislocation of Lens
3, 4. Pyramidal Cataract
5, 6. Lamellar Cataract
7, 8. Cortical Cataract
9, 10. Nuclear Cataract
11, 12. Posterior Polar Cataract *To face p.* 250

1. Slight Glaucoma Cupping
2. Deep Glaucoma Cupping *To face p.* 295

1–4. Microscopic sections of Ciliary Region and optic disc in Primary Glaucoma *To face p.* 303

1. Appearance of the disc in Astigmatism
2. Appearance of the disc in Astigmatism *To face p.* 362

WOODCUTS.

FIG. PAGE

1. Section through Upper Eyelid 2
2. Compressing Forceps for Eyelid 7
3. Section of Dermoid Cyst . 8
4. Compressing Forceps . . 15
5. Subcutaneous Ligature for Trichiasis 17
6. Arlt's Operation for Entropion 18
7, 8. Streatfeild-Snellen Operation 19
9. Adam's Operation . . . 21
10, 11. Wharton Jones' Operation 22
12, 13. Dieffenbach's Operation . 23
14. Symblepharon 27
15. Lachrymal Apparatus . . 30
16. Weber's Canaliculus Knife . 35
17. Probes for Nasal Duct . . 39
18. Probe in First and Second Positions 40
19. Syringe for Lachrymal Sac . 42
20. Cannulas for Injecting Nasal Duct. 43
21. Style for Nasal Duct . . 43
22. Lid Retractor 53
23. Everted Granular Lids . . 57
24. Oblique Focal Illumination . 70
25. Section of Anterior Chamber 81
26. Staphyloma of Cornea . . 84
27. Paracentesis of Anterior Chamber 86
28. Blunt Probe 87
29. Tattooing Needle . . . 92
30. Shouldered Keratomes . . 93
31. Speculum 97
32. Fixation Forceps 97
33. Squint Hook 97
34. Curved Scissors 97
35. Corneal Trephine . . . 102
36. Corneal Spud . . . 107

FIG. PAGE

37. Ciliary Region 116
38. The Blood-vessels of the Eye 120
39. Artificial Leech . . . 129
40. Choroido-Retinitis . . 139
41. Bent Triangular Keratome . 156
42. Graefe's Cataract Knife . 156
43. Iris Forceps 156
44. Iris Scissors 157
45. De Wecker's Iris Scissors . 157
46. Iridectomy with Keratome . 158
47. Iridectomy 159
48. Bent Broad Needle . . . 160
49. Iridectomy for Artificial Pupil 160
50. Tyrrel's Hook for Iridectomy 161
51. Diagram of the course of the Optic Nerve Fibres (Charcot) 207
52. De Wecker's Campimètre . . 214
53. McHardy's Perimeter . . 219
54. Priestley Smith's Perimeter . 220
55. Testing for the angle of Strabismus 225
56. Relative Colour-sensations . 230
57–59. Colour-Vision represented by curves . . . 233–238
60. Thomas's Arrangement of Holmgren's Wools . . 242
61. Cataract Needles . . . 258
62. The Needle Operation for Cataract 259
63. Curette 261
64. Teale's Suction Apparatus for Cataract 263
65. Flap Operation—Daviel's Incision 266
66. Beer's Cataract Knife . . 266
67. Flap Operation—Beer's Incision 266
68. Flap Operation—Jacobson's Incision 267

FIG. PAGE
69. Speculum 268
70. Noyes Specula . . . 268
71. Fixation Forceps . . 269
72. Forceps for seizing the Sclerotic 269
73. Double Fixation Hook . 269
74. Graefe's Linear Cataract Knife 269
75. Graefe's Linear Operation . 270
76. The Incision in Cataract Extraction 270
77. The Iridectomy in Cataract Extraction . . . 271
78. Cystitome and Curette . . 272
79. The Removal of the Lens in Cataract Extraction . . 273
80. Critchett's Cataract Scoop . 276
81. Snell's Electro-Magnet . 290
82. Optical Parallax . . . 296
83. Lines of Incision in Iridectomy and Sclerotomy . 307
84. Refraction at parallel surfaces 312
85. Refraction through a prism 313
86. Refraction at a single spherical surface. . . . 314
87. Conjugate Foci on opposite sides of refracting surface 315
88. Conjugate Foci on the same side of refracting surface 316
89. Axes of a Bi-spherical Lens. 317
90–93. Images formed by Bi-spherical Lenses . . 319, 320
94. Donders' Schematic Eye . 323
95. Frost's Artificial Eye . . 323

FIG. PAGE
96. Visual Angle . . . 328
97. Position of Retina in Emmetropia and Ametropia . . 330
98, 99. Myopia . . . 330, 331
100. Correction by Concave Lens 332
101. Hypermetropia . . . 335
102. Correction by Convex Lens. 336
103. Refraction at an Astigmatic surface 339
104. Adjustable Trial Frame . . 343
105. Couper's Ophthalmoscope . 345
106. Juler's Ophthalmoscope . . 347
107. Correction of Myopia . . 356
108. Tweedy's Optometer . . 359
109. Emergent Rays in Emmetropia 364
110. Emergent Rays in Myopia . 364
111. Emergent Rays in Hypermetropia 365
112. Appearance of Pupil in 'Shadow-test' . . . 365
113. Positions of Lamp, Mirror, and Eye in Shadow-test . 366
114, 115. Shadow-test in Hypermetropia 367
116, 117. Shadow-test in Myopia 368
118. Diagram of the Ocular Muscles 380
119. The Visual Axes in Strabismus 382
120. Measurement of the Angle of Strabismus . . . 392
121. Strabismometer . . . 393
122. Strabismus Scissors . . 396
123. Double Strabismus Hook . 399
124. Operation for Advancement of Internal Rectus . . 400

A HANDBOOK

OF

OPHTHALMOLOGY.

Erratum.

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Anatomy and Physiology. [illegible] ich eyelid presents the following structures (fig. 1): skin, connective tissue, sphincter orbicularis, tarsus, Meibomian glands with the glands of Moll, the ciliary muscle of Riolanus, and the conjunctiva. *The skin* is continuous with that of the face; at the free border of the lid it becomes continuous with the conjunctiva. It is delicate, but otherwise resembles the general integument; it is freely movable on the subjacent connective tissue. *The cilia* are slightly curved, and are placed in from two to four rows in the skin at the anterior border of the lids; at each side of the follicle of eac [illegible] ilium there opens a sebaceous follicle. Immediately be [illegible] cilia are found the ducts of the glands of Moll, wh [illegible] d sweat glands; they often, but not always, open i [illegible] sebaceous glands. The subcutaneous con [illegible] ins a few [illegible] issue [illegible] ter orbicularis are embedded. The palpebral portion of the *orbicularis palpebrarum muscle* consists of thin, pale, and slightly curved fibres, surrounding the fissure between the eyelids. It is closely adherent to the skin by fine connective tissue, but glides loosely over the tarsi; internally it is attached to the tendo oculi, and sends a few fibres in front and behind the lachrymal sac. *The tarsi* (tarsal cartilages) are two thin elongated plates composed of dense connective tissue, with a few cartilage cells. They give firmness and shape to each eyelid. They are situated beneath the fibres of the sphincter orbicularis muscle, and their fibres communicate with the connective tissue in front and behind them. The upper tarsus is somewhat oval in shape, and is thickest at its anterior edge; at its posterior edge it receives the levator palpebræ. The lower tarsus is thinner, narrower, and of nearly uniform breadth throughout. The tarsi are fixed by fibrous tissue internally to the tendo oculi, externally to the malar bone, and above and below to the margin of the orbit by the palpebral ligament. *The Meibomian* glands number from thirty to forty in the upper lid, and from twenty to thirty in the lower. They are embedded in the under surface of each

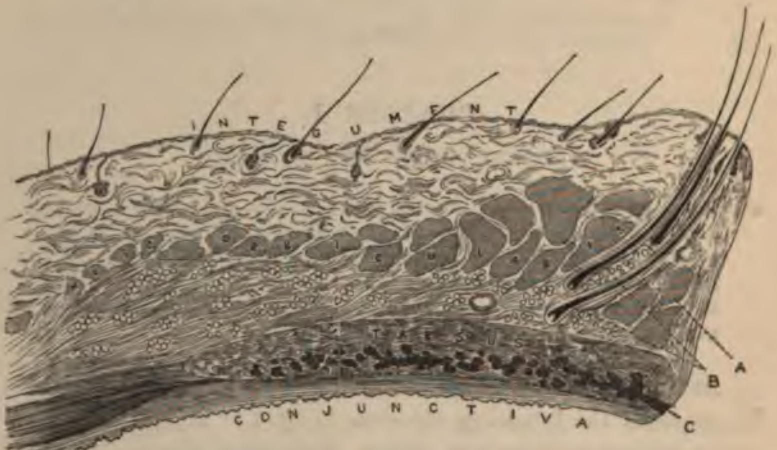


FIG. 1.—Section through Upper Eyelid.

A, the ciliary muscle of Riolanus; B, follicles of the eyelashes; C, opening of the Meibomian follicle.

tarsus, and are arranged in linear series parallel to the surface. In structure they exactly resemble sebaceous glands. Each consists of an excretory duct, with numerous cæcal appendages arranged along its sides. The duct is lined with laminated and tesselated epithelium; the appendages are lined with cuboidal epithelium, and are filled with fatty secretion. Their excretory ducts open on the free borders of the lids. Between these ducts and the cilia is a layer of muscular fibre, which is an offshoot of the orbicularis palpebrarum—the musculus ciliaris Riolani. *The conjunctiva* is the delicate, highly sensitive mucous membrane which is continuous with the skin at the free edge of the lids; after lining their inner surface it is reflected on to the globe and over the cornea, as its anterior epithelium; at the inner canthus it becomes continuous with the lining of the canaliculi. *The palpebral portion* is thickest and most vascular; it is firmly adherent to the tarsus, and presents numerous fine papillæ, freely supplied with nerves. The portion which is reflected from the lid to the globe (*fornix conjunctivæ*) is thin and loose; beneath it are found the ducts of a layer of racemose glands. *The sclerotic portion* is thinner than the palpebral; it has no papillæ; it is loosely connected to the globe by connective (episcleral) tissue. *The corneal portion* is almost entirely epithelial (*vide* Cornea). The conjunctiva is supplied with lymphatic vessels, which are arranged in the form of anastomosing superficial and deep plexuses. The arteries of the eyelids proceed from the ophthalmic artery. The sensory nerves are derived from the fifth pair. The orbicularis muscle is supplied by the facial and the levator palpebræ by the third nerve.

The mechanism concerned in the movements of the eyelids is one of great pathological and physiological interest, but is not yet thoroughly made out. The normal position of the eyelids is such, that, when the eyes are open and looking straight forward, the corneæ are exposed to view except at their upper parts. This position is relatively nearly the same when the eyes are directed either upwards or downwards, the lids thus moving with the globes. The eyelids are opened by the action of the levator palpebræ superioris, which is supplied by the third nerve. They are closed by the relaxation of this muscle, and by the contraction of the sphincter orbicularis, which is supplied by the facial nerve. The upward movement of the upper lid is effected by the contraction of the levator palpebræ superioris, acting probably in association with the rectus superior and obliquus inferior; and the lower lid is lifted up by means of its connection with the upper at the canthi. The lower lid is probably depressed by means of the relaxation of the levator palpebræ, and the contraction of the rectus inferior, which acts upon Tenon's capsule, with which the inferior tarsus is connected. The upper lid is thought to be pulled downwards by the lower through its attachment at the canthus. For further information on this subject the reader is referred to a paper by Mr. Lang and Dr. FitzGerald, published in vol. ii. of the Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society.

The eyelids serve to protect the eye from injury and undue exposure; their edges are lubricated by the secretion of the Meibomian glands. By their closure at frequent intervals they serve to convey the tears from the lachrymal gland to the lachrymal sac, and thus to lubricate the surface of the conjunctiva, and to clear away mucous secretion from the corneal surface.

Blepharitis (ophthalmia tarsi, tinea tarsi, sycosis tarsi) is an inflammation of the free edges of the eyelids.

Causes.—It frequently occurs in strumous subjects who have been exposed to bad hygienic conditions. It is very common in childhood, frequently following an attack of measles. It may be brought on by excessive use of the eyes, especially when working by artificial light. Other causes are errors of refraction, and obstruction of the lachrymal passages.

Symptoms and pathology.—There are numerous degrees of the affection, varying from simple hyperæmia to severe ulceration. It begins with painful sensation of pricking and burning in the eyelids, which is increased on exposure to bright light or to cold winds. There is an increase of the glandular secretion, and the eyelids are found sticking together in the mornings by gummy exudation. The patient experiences inability to do prolonged eye-work. In the simplest forms there is only slight redness and swelling, no marked anatomical lesions. In the more severe forms the smarting, pricking, and burning sensations are more severe; and lachrymation and photophobia are present. The edges of the lids are red and thick, and the roots of the lashes are seen to be surrounded by yellow incrustations of pus, beneath which are found more or less severe ulcerations. The lids are so glued together in the morning that the patient is unable to open them without the use of warm water. If neglected, the ulceration may become deep and severe, and thus destroy the glandular elements. The fatty secretion is thus suppressed, the tears overflow and cause irritation of the surrounding skin, which often becomes the seat of chronic eczema. The edges of the lid become thickened, the eyelashes become loose and fall out and are replaced by others of stunted growth, or the lids are deprived of lashes (lippitudo), or everted (ectropion); the closure of the palpebral aperture may be imperfect, and the globe of the eye, being exposed, is frequently inflamed.

Prognosis and treatment.—The treatment must be general as well as local. Tonics should be administered: iron in some form, quinine, cod liver oil. The patient should avoid fatigue of the eyes, cold winds, and artificial light. The lachrymal passages should be examined; any errors of refraction should be corrected by spectacles. Locally the treatment must depend on the severity of the case; in the simpler forms it is generally sufficient to thoroughly cleanse the eyelids from all incrustation two or three times daily with warm water, or with warm alkaline lotion, and then to smear the edges with some stimulating ointment—such as that of the yellow or red oxide, or of the nitrate of mercury (F. 24, 25, 26); or a lotion of acetate of lead may be employed (F. 27). *In the severer forms* the incrustations must be cleared away by warm alkaline lotions, as borax (F. 13), or carbonate of soda (F. 11 and 12). Those lashes which appear to be the seat of inflammation should be pulled out with epilation forceps, and the edges of the lids should be touched with solid nitrate of silver, or brushed with a solution of this salt (gr. xx. ad ℥j.). This application should be repeated once or twice a week until a healthy condition is established; and an ointment of the red or yellow oxide, or of the nitrate of mercury should be smeared on the lids night and morning after each cleansing with the alkaline solution.

Hordeolum (stye) is an inflammation of one of the sebaceous glands of the ciliary follicles at the margin of the lid.

Cause.—There is generally some constitutional derangement. Over-use of the eyes, especially in hypermetropes, and exposure to cold winds are exciting causes.

Symptoms and pathology.—It begins as a circumscribed red patch, redness and swelling soon extend to the neighbouring parts, sometimes to an alarming extent. Pain is sometimes very severe. At the end of three or four days a yellowish point appears at the centre of the swelling, generally around the base of one of the lashes; this indicates that suppuration has taken place, and that the abscess will point externally. Several of these styes may occur at the same time, or there may be successive crops of them.

Treatment must be constitutional as well as local. The general health should be improved by exercise in the open air, and the administration of good food, and tonic medicines, such as iron and quinine, or bark and ammonia. Great benefit is often derived from the internal administration of small doses of sulphide of calcium, a $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$ grain in the form of a pill immediately after meals three times daily. They should be continued for at least a week or ten days after the disappearance of the styes. Over-use of the eyes should be avoided. Locally the pain will be much relieved by frequent fomentation with warm water, or the application of bread-and-water poultice. An antiphlogistic lotion should be prescribed to be used warm (F. 27); and a pad of cotton-wool can be soaked in this and placed over the eye in the form of a compress once or twice daily for five minutes at a time. When pointing has commenced the cure is accelerated and the pain relieved by an incision.

Chalazion (Meibomian cyst, tarsal tumour) is a small tumour situated in the substance of the tarsus.

Cause.—Obstruction of the excretory duct of a Meibomian gland.

Symptoms and pathology.—The tumour is more commonly situated in the upper lid than in the lower; several may occur at the same time. They vary in size, their diameter ranging from three to ten millimetres. Each consists of a chronic hypertrophy of the deep portion of a Meibomian gland, containing accumulated secretion which is sometimes liquid and puriform, sometimes solid, homogeneous, and composed of sebaceous substance. The tumour is generally hard and spherical, fixed to the tarsus, but not to the skin. On everting the eyelid, a bluish discolouration is observed; this is due to thinning of the tissues beneath, and corresponds to the position of the tumour. It develops slowly, and may cause no inconvenience for several months, but, if left alone, it often inflames, and sometimes suppurates, pointing generally through the conjunctiva, but occasionally externally. In this way it may finally disappear by contraction.

Treatment.—The tumour must be removed by surgical means. In the majority of cases it is best to operate from the inside of the lid, but when there is pointing outwards the incision must be made through the skin, and in the same direction as the fibres of the sphincter orbicularis muscle. The nature of the operation should vary according to the character of the tumour; if this has fluid contents it will be sufficient to make a crucial incision through the conjunctiva of the everted lid, and to scoop out the contents with a curette. The cavity often fills with blood after the operation, but this becomes absorbed in about ten days. When the tumour has thick walls and solid contents extirpation is the only remedy. This may be done by fixing the eyelid in compressing forceps (see fig. 2). If operating through the skin the solid blade must be passed under the lid and the ring blade made to encircle the tumour. An incision must then be made over the tumour, parallel to the edge of the eyelid, through the skin and subcutaneous tissues until the

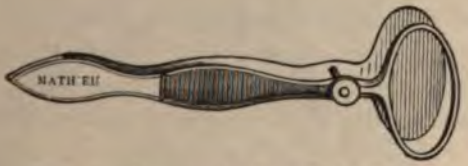


FIG. 2.—Compressing Forceps for Eyelid.

tumour is visible, this is then transfixed by a tenaculum, or seized with an artery forceps, and carefully dissected out with a small scalpel. If removed from within, the solid blade of the compressing forceps must be placed outside, and the ring blade inside the lid, which can then be easily everted with the instrument attached to it, and the extirpation proceeded with as before. Sutures are not required.

Dermoid cyst is congenital, and contains epithelial structures.

Symptoms and pathology.—It is a painless, uninflamed, spheroidal mass, situated generally at the outer angle of the orbit, on a level with the outer end of the eyebrow. Less frequently it occurs at the inner angle above, and is then to be approached with caution, as this is sometimes the position of *meningocele*, which is a congenital affection, having the same relation to the cranium and brain which spina bifida has to the spinal column and cord, i.e. incomplete development of the bone, with protrusion of the dura mater in the form of a sac containing fluid. The meningocele can usually be emptied on pressure, it also has a slight impulse, and is less movable. A dermoid cyst cannot be emptied, it is more or less movable, it is non-adherent to the skin; sometimes it is hard, sometimes semifluctuant on pressure. It is found beneath the orbicularis

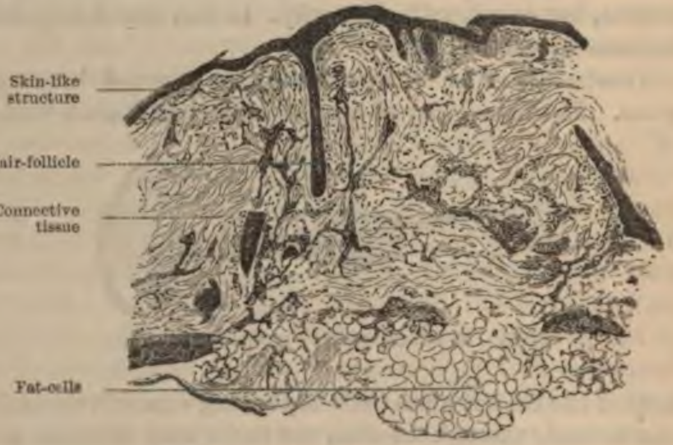


FIG. 3.—Section of Dermoid Cyst.

muscle, and is often firmly attached to the periosteum; sometimes it extends deeply into the orbit.

On microscopic examination it is generally seen to contain structures resembling the skin and its appendages, such as hair follicles, hairs, connective tissue, fat, &c. (see fig. 3). It develops slowly, but is usually seen during childhood. It causes but little inconvenience beyond the deformity.

The treatment consists in early excision. A good large incision must be made over the tumour, which should then be well cleared from the surrounding tissues. This should if possible be done without rupturing the tumour, otherwise the white sebaceous contents immediately escape, and the thin walls are afterwards difficult to find.

Nævi occur in the eyelids. They are similar in appearance and structure to those of other parts. Like dermoid cysts, they occasionally extend into the orbital cavity.

Treatment is the same here as in other parts, but preference should be given to those methods by which the destruction of the surrounding healthy tissues can be reduced to a minimum, on account of the deformity produced by subsequent cicatrisation. For this purpose I have found the galvano-puncture most valuable.

Xanthelasma (vitiligo) is characterised by the presence of yellowish patches, or nodosities, in the skin of the eyelids. The upper lid is most frequently attacked, but both may be simultaneously affected. The patches first appear near the inner angle and spread outwards parallel to the edges of the lids, being always elongated in form. They occur most frequently in women of middle age. The condition is due to proliferation of certain granular cells, some of which are pigmented, which appear normally in the deep parts of the skin of the eyelid; besides this the sebaceous glands of the part are hypertrophied, and their epithelial cells are filled with molecules of fat. Their presence causes no pain or inconvenience; but when numerous and of considerable size they are cosmetically objectionable, and the patient may desire to have them removed. This can be easily done by raising them with forceps and using a pair of curved scissors. Sutures are not generally required, and no scar is perceptible after the operation.

Epithelioma (rodent ulcer, rodent cancer, flat epithelial cancer, cancroid) is the most frequent of malignant growths affecting the eyelid.

Symptoms and pathology.—It seldom appears before the age of forty. It most commonly attacks the skin at the inner angle of the lower lid just below its free edge, but it may occur in other parts of the eyelids. It first appears as one or more small hard nodules, which the patient describes as a 'pimple;' this sooner or later becomes covered with a yellowish incrustation beneath which the skin is found to be excoriated. At this stage it causes but little inconvenience; the patient is in the habit of wiping away the scab from time to time, but finding that it does not heal, he presents himself to the surgeon, and it is at this period of the disease that we generally see it. It now presents a brownish exudation, which is hard and dry, and consists of inspissated sanio-purulent matter; beneath this is an ulcerated surface, which at first may be little more than an excoriation, and may appear to heal up for a time, but soon breaks out again, and becomes deeper with hardened edges and purulent secretion. It may remain indolent, or only occasionally irritable, for months and even years, without making visible progress, either in surface or depth; but sooner or later it will take on a rapid action, destroying not only the skin but the deeper parts of the eyelids, the connective tissues of the orbit, the cornea and globe of eye, and finally the bones of the face. This disease is called rodent ulcer by many English writers, and is regarded by them as the mildest expression of a malignant disease—chiefly because of the long indolent stage, during which there is no pain, and no infiltration of the neighbouring lymphatic glands; but as soon as the active stage has commenced, and the deeper tissues have become affected, the pain grows intense, the lymphatics in the neighbourhood of the parotid gland are affected, and the destruction of tissue is so rapid that the term 'mildness' is no longer applicable.

Microscopy.—If the tumour be immersed in Müller's fluid until it is sufficiently hard for section, and then cut vertically just at the junction of the tumour with the healthy skin, and stained with logwood, it will in many cases be found to consist

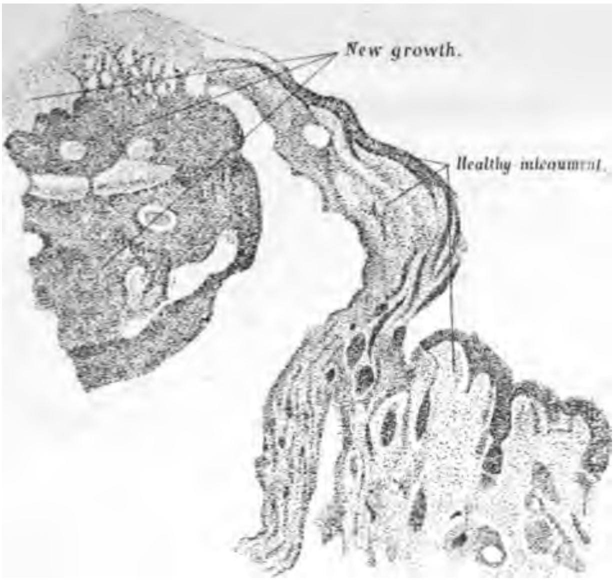


Fig 1. Epithelioma of lower eye lid × about 55 diam

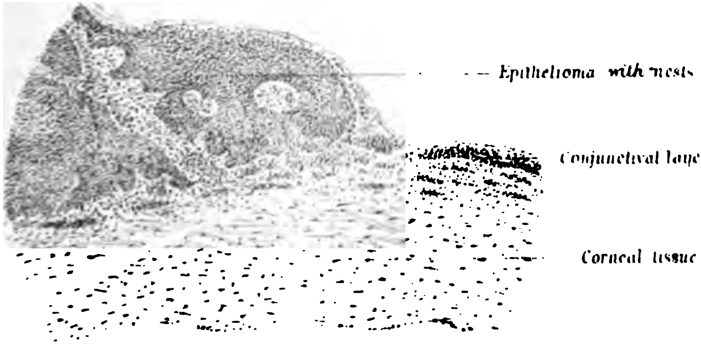


Fig 2 Epithelioma of cornea. × about 55

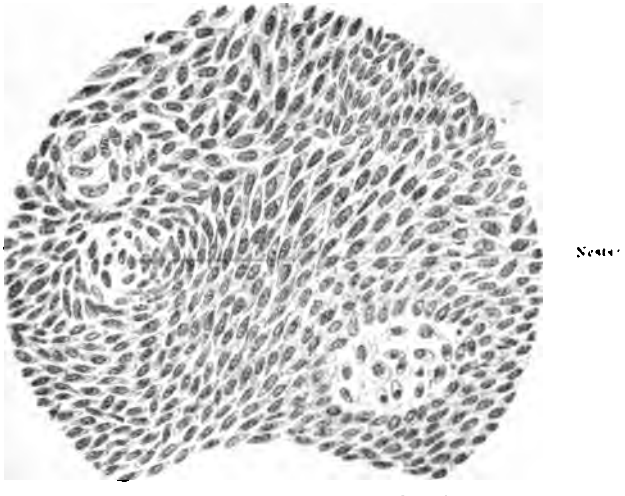


Fig 3 Portion of tumour of Fig 2 × ab 160.

of ingrowths of epithelial cells; these are very abundant, and in the deeper layers typical 'nests' composed of concentric rings of flattened cells may often be seen—such an appearance, in fact, as is represented in figs. 2 and 3, opposite page 10, which shows an epithelioma of cornea. Very often, however, there is chronic inflammation of the part, so that the new growth is infiltrated with leucocytes, which absorb the staining fluid so readily, and are so abundant, that all other cells and tissues are obscured. Fig. 1, opposite page 10, represents a section from an epithelioma of over twenty years' standing, in which this abundant ingrowth of epithelium is very evident.

The diagnosis of epithelioma from tertiary syphilitic ulcer is sometimes difficult. As a rule, however, there is more cicatricial tissue around the latter, which is often multiple, and yields to the proper treatment for syphilis.

The treatment consists in the effectual removal of all the diseased tissue. This may be done in various ways, either by the knife or the thermal cautery. The method I have found most successful is that of *scraping* away all the diseased tissue by means of a small steel scoop, in a manner which was first pointed out to me by my friend and colleague Mr. Malcolm Morris. The patient is anæsthetised, and the whole surface as well as the thickened edges of the patch are thoroughly scraped away. This is attended with considerable hæmorrhage, and is a rather tedious process, but its success in arresting this malignant affection is marvellous.

Patients are often very reluctant to submit to operative interference, and will sometimes allow the disease to advance until it is too late to afford relief. They should be warned of the great danger of such neglect. In severe cases it is well to apply chloride of zinc paste (F. 38) to the surface of the wound after removal. Even in those cases where the disease has been allowed to proceed beyond hope of permanent recovery, the removal of the diseased tissues by the knife or thermal cautery, and the subsequent application of chloride of zinc paste to the surfaces of the wound, appears to afford great relief from pain, and even to check the progress of the disease.

Papillomata (warts) are occasionally found on the edge of the eyelid, and upon the conjunctiva. They should be snipped off with curved scissors, taking care to cut well below their bases. Horny growths are also sometimes seen, and should be treated in a similar manner.

Molluscum contagiosum is an affection of the sebaceous glands which affects the eyelids and face as well as other parts of the integument.

Symptoms and pathology.—It begins as one or more hemispherical prominences of a whitish appearance varying in diameter from two to five millimetres, and is more commonly seen towards the inner part of the lower lid and cheek than in other parts. It consists of an hypertrophy of a sebaceous gland, the contents of which is composed of epithelial elements. The gland sometimes becomes inflamed, when the tumour will have a reddish appearance and may go on to suppuration. It is possible that the affection is contagious, but there is not much evidence of such being the fact.

Treatment.—Each tumour must be transfixed through its base with a small scalpel and divided, its contents should then be evacuated either by squeezing between the thumb-nails, or with forceps.

Sarcoma of the conjunctiva is a rare affection; when it does occur it is usually pigmented, and sometimes almost black; its favourite situation is on the ocular conjunctiva near the cornea, whence it spreads to the lower cul-de-sac and lower lid. Free excision of the affected tissues is the only hope for the cure of this malignant growth, which is liable to recur after all efforts have been made to remove it.

Lipoma and Fibroma of the eyelid are very rare. They present the same characters here as in other regions.

Indurated Chancre sometimes occurs on the eyelids. It is accompanied by much swelling. The glands of the parotid region are also indurated.

Gummata occasionally occur in the eyelids, their seat of election being usually at the outer part of the upper lid. The induration is sometimes accompanied by swelling of the surrounding tissues of the lid, and more or less redness. They are accompanied by other symptoms of constitutional syphilis.

Tertiary syphilitic ulcers also occur on the eyelids; when more than one ulcer is present they are easily recognised, but when occurring singly, with indurated edges and of slow increase, they are frequently difficult to distinguish from epithelioma. The history of the case as to previous syphilitic infection and duration of ulcer must be ascertained. Local application of iodoform, or black wash, combined with the internal administration of iodide of potassium, will here be productive of early improvement, which at once confirms the diagnosis.

Blepharospasm (involuntary spasmodic contraction of the orbicular muscle) is mostly associated with photophobia. It is sometimes of the *tonic* kind, in which there is complete and continued closure of the eyelids, with inversion of the lashes against the corneal surface, thus causing great irritation of the cornea, and, by the constant pressure upon the globe, setting up troubles in the intraocular circulation which are very prejudicial to vision. Sometimes the spasm is of the *clonic* variety, in which the contractions of the sphincter last from a few seconds to a minute, then ceasing entirely for a few seconds, but to return again with the same intensity. In other cases there is a severe spasm lasting for several hours and then disappearing entirely.

Blepharospasm is usually due to irritation of some branch of the fifth nerve which, reflected through the facial nerve to the sphincter orbicularis, causes its contraction. Hence it is often caused by a foreign body inside the lids, an ulcer of the cornea, iritis, carious teeth and other lesions in parts which are supplied by the fifth nerve. Another common cause is catarrhal conjunctivitis in children. It occasionally follows operations upon the eye, especially cataract extraction. It is sometimes due to the errors of refraction.

The treatment must be chiefly directed to the cause of the irritation. In the great majority of the cases the cornea is ulcerated, although the loss of tissue is often so superficial and so slight that it can only be observed by the focal illumination. In such cases the proper treatment will be pointed out under the head of corneal ulcers. The division of the structures at the outer canthus by means of scissors is advised by some surgeons. When the spasm is not caused by ocular lesions, the treatment is less certain. Graefe found a '*point of election*' in certain cases, that is a point where pressure upon the part would cause cessation or diminution of the spasm. This point of election is difficult to find, its most common position is just opposite the exit of the infra-orbital nerve on the cheek.

The continuous current is sometimes very beneficial, the positive pole being placed behind the mastoid process and the negative passed along the surface of the lid.

Ptosis is a drooping of the upper eyelid. It may be *complete* or *partial*. When *complete* the eyelid covers the whole surface of the globe, and cannot be raised by any effort on the part of the patient. When *partial* more or less of the surface of the cornea is exposed to view, and some elevation can be produced by voluntary effort. It produces very unsightly deformity in either case.

Causes.—The most frequent is paralysis of the third nerve (motor oculi), of which it is often one of the first symptoms. Traumatic lesions involving injury of the levator palpebræ. Hypertrophy of the upper lid itself may exist as the result of chronic inflammation, erysipelas, or tumours. Ptosis may be congenital, and is then usually associated with defect in the other ocular muscles, and affects both the eyes.

Treatment must necessarily vary as the cause of the affection. When it is due to paralysis of the third nerve, the cause of that paralysis should be carefully sought for. This may be due to intra-cranial disease, as gumma of the base of brain, cerebral tumour; to tumours or other diseases of the orbit, as exostosis, sarcoma; to general diseases, as syphilis, gout, or rheumatism. Of internal remedies, especially in cases where syphilis is the cause of the nerve lesion, the iodide of potassium is one of the most reliable. It should be given three times daily, after food; the dose being gradually increased from 3 to 15 or 20 grains, and its administration continued for several weeks after the cure of the patient. In recent cases, resulting from defective innervation, counter-irritants, such as slight blisters, iodine liniment, or compound camphor liniment, applied to the temporal region may be of some benefit. *Electricity* in the form of the continuous current is sometimes of great assistance in conjunction with other remedies. The positive pole should be applied to the forehead, the negative pole to the eyelids, the eyes being closed. Six or eight couples are sufficient. The application should be made daily for five minutes at each sitting. When internal and local remedies fail to improve the deformity, an operation for excision of a portion of the orbicular muscle from the upper lid is recommended with the object of diminishing its force, and consequently of increasing that of its antagonist, the levator palpebræ. *The operation* is very easily performed, as follows: The upper lid is secured in the compressing forceps (fig. 4). A longitudinal incision is made along the whole length of the lid about five millimetres from its free edge, the skin is cut through and dissected upwards so as to expose the fibres of the orbicularis muscle; these are then seized with forceps and a strip of about five millimetres width excised with scissors. Four or five sutures are then to be introduced, each suture being passed through the upper and lower portions of the divided muscle as well as the skin. The amount of muscle removed should be proportionate to the severity of the ptosis. The mere excision of a strip of integument from the upper lid is of no use.

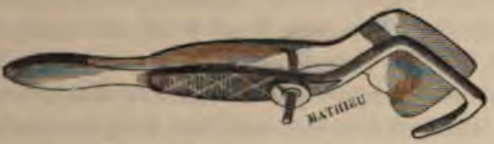


FIG. 4.—Compressing Forceps.

Dr. H. Pagenstecher's operation for ptosis was brought before the notice of the International Congress by him in 1881. It claims to bring the action of the occipito-frontalis muscle to bear upon the upper lid by means of a subcutaneous cicatrix. It is performed as follows:

I. *Operation for complete ptosis.*—A needle armed with a thick thread is introduced beneath the skin about 2 cm. above the supraciliary edge, and 2 mm. to the outer side of its middle line. It is then guided downwards and inwards beneath the skin, and brought out about the middle of the upper lid close to its ciliary margin. The ends of the thread are then tied in a knot, and moderate tension is made. The tension is gradually increased day by day, so as to make it cut its way through the skin, by drawing it tighter. The inflammatory symptoms are comparatively slight. The scar is not extensive. One ligature generally suffices, but two may be required.

II. *Operation for partial ptosis* is a modification of the above. A strong thread is armed with a needle at each end. One needle is then introduced beneath the skin of the upper lid parallel to its ciliary border for about 1 mm. or 2 mm. At the point of exit the same needle is again introduced and carried beneath the skin, but over the tarsus, and again brought out about 2 cm. above the supraciliary arch and 2 mm. external to its middle line. The second needle is then introduced at the point of entry of the first needle, directed upwards, and brought out at the same point of exit above the supraciliary arch. The two threads are then tied together and moderately tightened, thus forming a subcutaneous ligature, which must be left a longer or shorter time, and in extreme cases may be allowed to entirely cut its way out. By this means a subcutaneous cicatricial band is produced, which, Dr. Pagenstecher maintains, will transmit the action of the occipito-frontalis to the upper lid.

Trichiasis, Distichiasis, and Entropion are all modifications of the same affection of the eyelids. In *trichiasis* the eyelashes are inverted so as to rub against the surface of the globe; the number of the lashes which are thus turned in varies from one, two, or three to the whole number. In *distichiasis* there appear to be supplementary rows of cilia developed, which are also incurved; this development is generally attended with more or less thickening of the free edge of the eyelid. In *entropion* there is inversion of the lid as well as the cilia. The amount of inversion varies from a slight incurvation to complete reduplication, so that the cilia are in contact with the upper cul-de-sac. Entropion may be acute (spasmodic) or chronic. The acute form is common in old people after an operation on the eye. The chronic is usually due to cicatrisation of the inner surface of the lid.

Causes.—The most common cause of all these affections is chronic granular conjunctivitis, which, having been imperfectly cured, has been followed by contraction of the conjunctival surface of the lid. Sometimes they are due to contraction of the sphincter orbicularis. They may be the result of injuries of the conjunctiva, lacerations, burns, &c.

Treatment.—For trichiasis: (1) When the number of incurved cilia is small they may be removed by epilation forceps. Each lash should be firmly seized close to its base and pulled out steadily. They will probably recur after a few weeks, and may be subjected to the same treatment. In case of a third or fourth recurrence, some method of destroying the incurved lashes should be adopted. Various methods are employed for this purpose. Those of Gaillard and of Herzenstein consist in surrounding the roots of the incurved lashes by a tight subcutaneous ligature of fine silk, thus causing ulceration and obliteration of the follicles of the cilia.

Operation.—The eye being protected by a horn spatula, a needle, which can be armed near its point with the ligature (see fig. 5), is introduced at the margin of the eyelid just below the lashes which are to be strangulated, say at A, and passed subcutaneously to a point B, two or three millimetres above, the ligature is secured at B, and the needle withdrawn, it is then rethreaded and passed subcutaneously from B to C. The two ends of the ligature at A and C have now to be tightly tied together so as to include the offending lashes, and its ends cut short. Water dressing should be applied, and the ligature allowed to come away of its own accord.

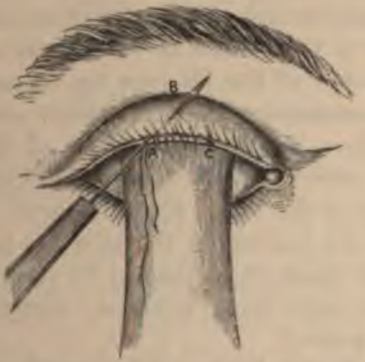


FIG. 5.—Subcutaneous Ligature for Trichiasis.

(2) The galvano-puncture has been successfully used in destroying aberrant lashes of this description by Dr. Benson, of Dublin.

(3) In more severe cases of trichiasis, the whole ciliary margin of the eyelid should be shifted away from the cornea.

Arlt's method of doing this is as follows: A small double-edged straight knife is inserted at one or other end of the eyelid between the cilia and the Meibomian ducts, and its point is made to come out through the skin about two millimetres above the lashes. It is then made to cut its way along the whole length of the edge of the lid (see fig. 6), and thus forms a bridge of tissue containing the lashes only. A second incision is now made from the two extremities of the first curving upwards to the extent of three or four millimetres. This forms a semilunar flap on the upper lid which must be dissected off. The bridge of skin containing the cilia has now to be shifted upwards, and its upper edge attached by sutures to the skin of the lid, its lower edge being left free. Simple water dressing is all that is necessary.

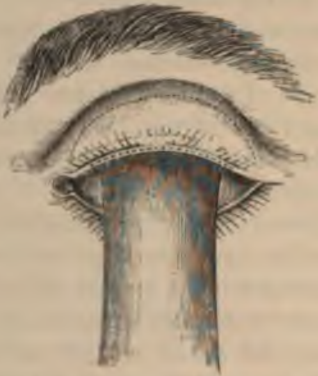


FIG. 6.—Lines of Incision in Arlt's Operation.

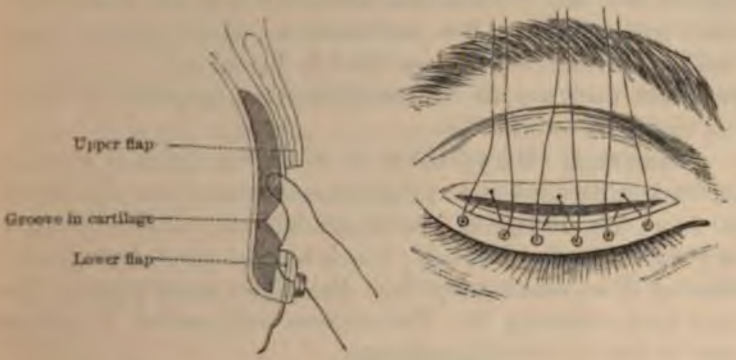
Another method of dealing with extensive trichiasis is that of *scalping*. The whole ciliary margin of the lid is dissected away. The practice is becoming obsolete.

Entropion, (1) *When spasmodic* is generally relieved by excising a strip of the skin and orbicularis muscle from the whole length of the lid, parallel to its margin. The width of the flap to be removed must vary according to the laxity of the tissue, which is generally great in these cases. The edges of the wound are united by sutures, and water dressing applied.

(2) *When chronic* it may be treated by either of the following methods.

A. By **Arlt's method** of transplanting the ciliary border, which is the same as that just described for trichiasis (fig. 6, p. 18).

B. By **Streatfeild's operation** for 'grooving' the tarsus. This is best described in Mr. Streatfeild's own words. 'The lid is held with compressing forceps (fig. 4, p. 14), the flat blade passed under the lid, and the ring fixed upon the skin so as to make it tense, and expose the edge of the lid. An incision with a scalpel is made of the desired length, just through the skin, along the palpebral margin, at a distance of a line or less, so as to expose, but not to divide, the roots of the lashes; and then just beyond them the incision is continued down to the cartilage (the extremities of this wound are inclined towards the edge of the lid); a second incision, farther from the palpebral margin, is made at once down to the cartilage in a similar direction to the first, and at a distance of a line or more, and joining it at both extremities; these two incisions are then continued deeply into the cartilage in an oblique direction towards each other. With a pair of forceps the strip to be excised is seized, and detached with the scalpel.'[1] Three sutures



FIGS. 7 and 8.
The Streatfeild-Snellen Operation for Entropion.

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[1] *R.O.H. Reports*, vol. i. p. 125.

are then introduced as follows. A small curved needle, armed with fine silk, is passed first through the lower edge of the skin wound, then through the upper edge of the groove in the tarsus, and the two ends tied tightly together. The upper edge of the skin wound is thus left free, and unites very well without sutures. This operation gives excellent results. It has been slightly modified by Snellen, who makes the groove in the cartilage rather higher up, and uses a different form of suture. Three sutures are used (see figs. 7 and 8). A fine silk suture is passed through the upper edge of the groove in the tarsus for about one millimetre. It is armed at each end with a needle; these needles are then passed through the lower edge of the skin wound, just above the cilia; their distance apart should be about four millimetres. All the sutures being similarly introduced, a glass bead is passed over the end of each, and they are all tightened together by gentle traction, and then each suture tied.

Ectropion is that condition in which the eyelid is everted and its conjunctival surface exposed. It most commonly affects the lower lid. It may be *partial* or *complete*, and the eversion may cause displacement of the lower punctum lachrymale, drawing it so much away from the globe as to prevent the tears from entering it. The exposed conjunctiva is always more or less thickened.

Causes.—An acute form of ectropion, due to tumefaction of the conjunctiva, is sometimes met with in ophthalmia neonatorum, in which the lids become everted on the orbicularis muscle being called into action, as in crying, &c. Chronic forms are generally caused by cicatrices of the skin of the eyelid or neighbouring parts following wounds, burns, scalds, abscess, ulceration, &c.

Treatment must vary with the cause of the eversion.

1. In the acute form efforts must be made to reduce the inflammation of the conjunctiva by leeches, scarification, compresses of lint dipped in iced water, or even the excision of a portion of the mucous membrane with scissors.

2. When there is persistent eversion of the lower punctum lachrymale the lower canaliculus should be slit up and kept open.

Dr. Argyll Robertson's method is well suited for cases of ectropion of the lower lid in old people, in which the conjunctiva is thickened and the tissues of the face lax. Each end of a stout ligature, armed with a needle, is passed from without inwards through the margin of the eyelid, the punctures being about a centimetre apart. In this way a loop is left externally parallel with the edge of the lid. Each end is then thrust through the lower cul-de-sac and made to emerge upon the cheek well below the eyelid.

The operator now takes a piece of sheet-lead, shaped and moulded to resemble the normal tarsus, this he places in the conjunctival cul-de-sac, beneath the ligatures, so that, on tightening the latter, the lid is moulded to the lead, and lead and eyelid are together drawn towards the eye. A stout piece of drainage tube is now placed beneath the external loop, and the ends of the ligature tied over it below; this prevents the skin being cut, and by its elasticity allows a certain amount of swelling to occur. After about ten days the ligatures are cut and removed, when a considerable improvement, and often a complete cure, will be found to have been effected.

3. When the edge of the lid has become elongated as well as everted **Adam's operation** may be performed. This consists in removing a triangular wedge from the whole thickness of the lower lid (see fig. 9). The base of the triangle must be at the edge of the lid; its width may vary, according to cir-

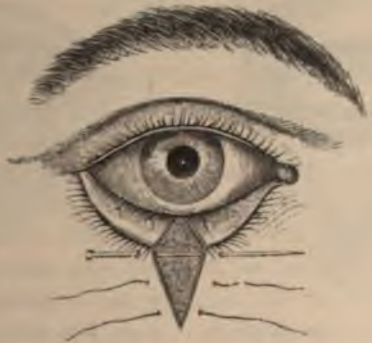

FIG. 9.—Adam's Operation for Ectropion.

cumstances, between 5 and 10 mm. The sides of the triangle should be from 10 to 20 mm. The edges of the wound are brought together by a fine pin, and secured by one or two sutures. This operation is often more advantageously performed near the outer canthus.

4. When the eversion is due to contraction of neighbouring cicatrices on the face, the nature of the operation must depend upon the site and extent of the lesion, and much scope is often afforded for the exercise of ingenuity on the part of the surgeon.

In all such cases no plastic operation should be attempted until the skin of the affected part has as far as possible recovered from the injury. It sometimes requires six months or more for the hardness and thickening of the skin and subcutaneous tissue to have passed away. The variety of plastic operations performed for ectropion is very great; those of Wharton Jones and of Dieffenbach will serve as examples.

Wharton Jones Operation.—The eye is to be protected by a horn spatula placed beneath the lower lid. A V-shaped (fig. 10) incision is to be made with a small scalpel, including as far as possible the cicatricial tissue; the flap thus formed is to be dissected from the subjacent parts sufficiently to enable the lid to be pressed upwards to its normal position. There then

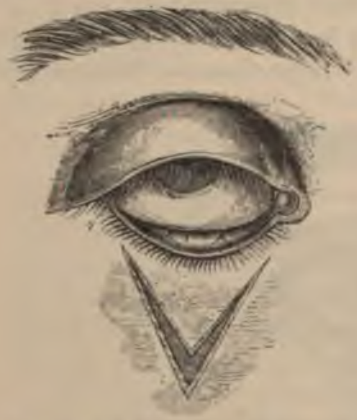

FIG. 10.—Wharton Jones Operation (first stage).

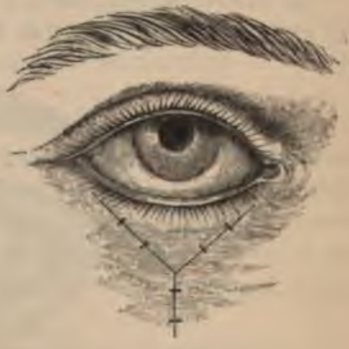

FIG. 11.—(final stage.)

remains a raw surface, which is to be covered by bringing together the edges of the V-shaped wound by means of fine pins in such a manner that the V-shaped incision becomes Y-shaped (see figs. 10 and 11).

In **Dieffenbach's operation** the diseased tissue is dissected away by a triangular incision, which has its base at the lower lid; a flap of skin of equal size is then marked off from the immediate neighbourhood (see fig. 12). This is loosened by careful dissection and then glided on to the recently exposed surface beneath the lower lid. It is then kept in position by fine hare-lip pins and sutures, as shown in fig. 13. In slight cases the surface from which the new skin has been removed soon becomes covered over by growth from the edges of the wound; but when a large surface is thus exposed, skin grafts should be made from other parts of the body.

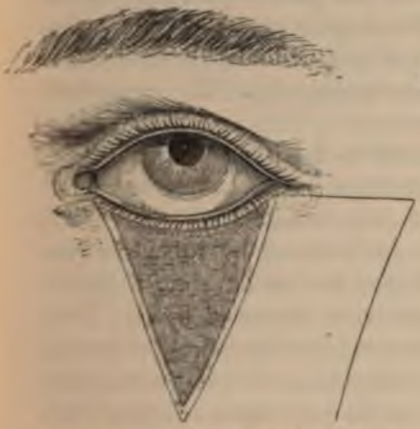

FIG. 12.—Dieffenbach's Operation for Ectropion (first stage).

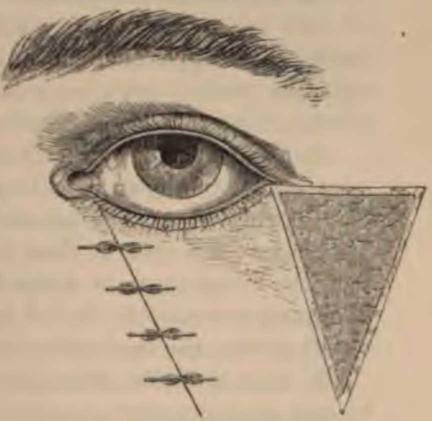

FIG. 13.—(second stage.)

Wolfe's Operation.—The operation for the transplantation of skin *en masse* in the treatment of ectropion and other deformities of the eyelids has been somewhat extensively practised during the last few years. Professor Wolfe, in his recent work,[1] speaks very favourably of this method, which he brought before the notice of the profession in 1875. Since that time a number of successful cases have been reported. It is particularly valuable in all cases where skin is required to replace cicatricial tissue, such as that which so often follows burns of the cheek and eyelids. **The operation** is long and tedious; like all blepharoplastic procedures, it requires great care and ingenuity on the part of the surgeon.

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[1] *Diseases and Injuries of the Eye*, by J. R. Wolfe, M.D. 1882.

1. The mucous membrane is to be pared from the margins of both eyelids, and the raw surfaces thus produced are to be brought into apposition and united by four fine silk sutures, in order to produce temporary ankyloblepharon. The eyelashes should, if possible, be undisturbed.

2. The affected eyelid is then to be liberated from the cicatricial tissue by an incision through the skin along its whole length, parallel to, and about 2 mm. from, its ciliary border. The contracted skin is then to be loosened by subcutaneous incision, so as to form a semilunar raw surface, or, if quite deformed and useless, it had better be dissected away. The bleeding from the surface thus exposed is to be entirely stopped.

3. A piece of skin of similar shape and about one-third larger in each diameter of the exposed surface is now to be carefully dissected from some other part of the body of the patient, or of another person. The inner side of the arm, the front of the forearm, the front of the leg, and the foreskin are all convenient parts for this dissection, which should be made as far as possible without removing subcutaneous connective tissue and fat. Before detaching the flap of skin which is to be transplanted, it is well to pass three or four sutures into different points at its margin, otherwise it shrivels up in such a manner that it cannot be opened out without difficulty and loss of time. The same sutures can be used to secure it in its new position.

The object of making the flap so much larger than the surface is that it contracts immediately after removal, as well as after union. As soon as removed it is to be transposed, and secured in its new position by numerous fine silk sutures.

4. Various methods of dressing are recommended. Professor Wolfe recommends the application of lint soaked in hot water for a few minutes after the operation, and finally dressing with warm moist lint covered over with dry lint, gutta-percha tissue, and bandage. The plan I have adopted with success is

to apply first a piece of goldbeater's skin, then a dossil of dry lint, and over these a large pad of dry and warm cotton-wool and a bandage. The dressings should be carefully removed once daily. The eyelids can remain united for a longer or shorter period according to the nature of the case. When their union is considered to be no longer conducive to the prevention of eversion of the lid, they can be carefully separated by incision with a sharp scalpel on a grooved director.

Skin grafting has in my experience been of greater utility than either of the foregoing operations. The plan I adopt is to loosen the unhealthy skin by subcutaneous section, and to shift it upwards so as to liberate the eyelid from its traction. If the tissue is very much diseased I remove it altogether by dissection. Water dressing is then applied for one or two days to the exposed surface with the object of inducing a condition of healthy granulation. As soon as the surface looks red and clean I make numerous small grafts of skin from some other part of the patient's body, preferably from the front of the forearm. In order to detach these grafts from the forearm I pass a flat surgical needle just beneath the true skin, so as to raise a bridge of about 2 mm. This bridge is cut through at each end by small thin scissors, and can be transferred to the raw surface. No scar is left on the arm, nor is there any great pain caused by the process. The more grafts thus made the greater is the success of the operation. If the first batch does not succeed, other attempts must be made. As soon as the grafting is completed a piece of goldbeater's skin is placed over the patch, then a piece of dry lint, and this is secured by good strapping. The patient should remain as quiet as possible after the operation, and should be cautioned not to rub the part should it be irritable. The strapping and lint should be carefully removed once daily, and the condition of the grafts examined through the transparent goldbeater's skin. The grafts at first have a white sodden appearance, but on the second or third day they become pink, and increase rapidly in all directions.

Epicanthus is a congenital deformity in which a crescentic fold of skin projects in front of the inner canthus. It is generally symmetrical, giving a broad appearance to the root of the nose. By pinching up the skin at the root of the nose the epicanthus can be made to disappear. It generally improves as the child grows and the bones of the face become developed. Vision is not interfered with. Operative interference is seldom required except for cosmetic purposes, and should not be adopted during childhood.

When required it is simply necessary to remove an oval flap of skin from the median line over the root of the nose, the size of which must vary with the extent of the deformity, and to bring the edges of the wound together by sutures.

Contusions are very common and may vary from slight redness to severe cutaneous and subcutaneous ecchymoses (' black-eye '). They are not unfrequently accompanied by other more serious lesions of the globe, or of the orbit. The absorption of the ecchymosis in ' black-eye ' is often hastened by the use of cold water compresses or of evaporating lotions.

Wounds when **incised** or **lacerated** should have their edges brought into exact apposition by fine sutures. Great attention should be given in these cases to the position of the puncta lachrymalia, as the slightest eversion of these from the globe is sufficient to interfere with the natural flow of tears. When wounds are **penetrating**, the condition of the globe and of the orbit should be carefully examined. They heal with great rapidity. A pad of lint and a light bandage should be applied in either of the above cases.

Burns and **scalds** of the eyelids require similar treatment to that employed in other parts of the body. In case of destruction of tissue great care should be exercised to keep the lids from uniting to each other by their edges (ankyloblepharon), and to prevent the ocular and palpebral portions of the conjunctiva from becoming adherent (symblepharon). Burns from quick-lime are of frequent occurrence; the eyelids should be well everted and carefully washed with cotton-wool and water, a little castor oil and atropine should then be dropped into the palpebral aperture, and a compress of lint and a light bandage applied. The eye should afterwards be examined daily and any adhesions broken down with a probe.

Ankyloblepharon signifies the adhesion of the ciliary margins of the eyelids. It may be congenital or acquired, complete or partial. It often accompanies and is produced by the same cause as symblepharon. The adhesion is rarely so complete as to involve the entire edges of the lids; it usually only occupies their outer half; even in the most complete cases a small opening usually exists near the inner canthus, through which the tears and mucus can escape. *The treatment* consists in dividing the cicatricial structures which hold the lids together. To do this a grooved director should first be passed behind the lids, and the incision made with a small scalpel.

Symblepharon is the abnormal adhesion of the eyelids to the globe. It is usually caused by burns or injuries, but occasionally follows granular and diphtheric conjunctivitis. Symblepharon may be *partial*, consisting of one or more bands of cicatricial tissue extending from the conjunctiva of the lid to that of the globe, and thus forming a bridge of tissue beneath which a probe can be passed; or it may be *complete*, that is, the entire surface of the affected portion of the lids becomes united to the globe. The lower lid is most commonly adherent; in severe cases this becomes united to the cornea, thus producing great deformity, limitation of the upward and lateral movements of the globe, and partial or total loss of vision (see fig. 14).

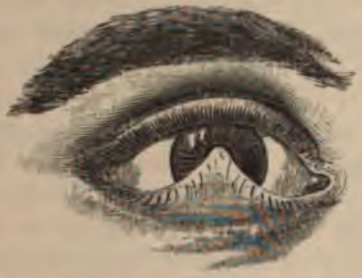

FIG. 14.—Symblepharon (after Anderson Critchett).

Treatment.—In the simpler forms of partial symblepharon, where only a band of cicatricial tissue extends from the palpebral to the ocular conjunctiva, and where a probe can be passed beneath, it is usually sufficient to snip away the adhesion close to both surfaces with scissors, and to keep the raw surfaces from uniting by separating them with a probe every day.

When more extensive adhesions exist we must have recourse to other procedures.

1. **Teale's operation** consists in the dissection of the adherent lid from the globe, so that the latter can move freely in all directions. This done, the neighbouring healthy conjunctiva is utilised, by dissection and stretching, so as to form flaps to cover the ocular, and, if possible, the palpebral surfaces. Numerous fine silk sutures are used to draw the edges of the new flaps together. Various modifications of this operation are performed by different surgeons.

2. **Professor Wolfe** has introduced an operation for transplantation *en masse* of portions of conjunctiva from the eye of a living rabbit, in lieu of transferring portions of conjunctiva from one part to another of the same eye. He thus describes the operation:[1] 'I put the patient and two rabbits under chloroform, one of the latter being kept in reserve in case of accident. I then separate the adhesions, so that the eyeball can move in every direction. Next, I mark the boundary of the portion of the conjunctiva of the rabbit which I wish to transplant, by inserting four black silk ligatures, which I secure with a knot, leaving the needles attached; those black ligatures indicate also the epithelial surface, which would be very difficult to distinguish after separation. I take from the rabbit that portion of the conjunctiva which lines the inner angle covering the 'membrana nictitans,' and extending as far as the cornea, selecting this on account of its vascularity and looseness. The ligatures being put on the stretch, I separate the conjunctiva to be removed with scissors, and transfer it quickly to replace the lost conjunctiva palpebræ of the patient, securing it in its place by means of the same needles, and adding other two stitches, or more if requisite. Both eyes are then covered with a bandage and dry lint. For the first forty-eight hours the conjunctiva has a greyish look, but it gradually loses that appearance, and with the exception of some isolated patches here and there, becomes glistening, in some parts looking not unlike conjunctival thickening. These patches gradually decrease until the whole assumes a red appearance. Should any irritation set in, I apply warm water fomentations.'

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[1] *Loc. cit.*

CHAPTER II.

THE AFFECTIONS OF THE LACHRYMAL APPARATUS.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY—DISEASES OF LACHRYMAL GLAND—INFLAMMATION—HYPERTROPHY—SARCOMA—EXTIRPATION—CYSTS—FISTULA OF GLAND—DISPLACEMENT OF PUNCTA—SLITTING UP CANALICULUS—PROBING—OBSTRUCTION OF CANALICULI AND OF NASAL DUCT—ABSCESS OF LACHRYMAL SAC—FISTULA OF SAC.

Anatomy and Physiology.—The lachrymal apparatus consists of the lachrymal gland and its excretory ducts, the lachrymal canaliculi, the lachrymal sac, and the nasal duct.

The lachrymal gland is placed in the upper and outer part of the orbit, a little behind its anterior margin. It consists of a large superior and a small inferior portion. The larger portion is about 2 cm. in length, 1 cm. in breadth, and 0·5 cm. in thickness; it is lodged in a depression in the orbital plate of the frontal bone, to which it adheres by fibrous bands. The smaller portion is separated from the larger by connective tissue, it is closely adherent to the back of the upper eyelid, and is covered on its ocular surface by conjunctiva (see fig. 15).

From both portions of the gland there proceed numerous small ducts—**the lachrymal ducts**—varying from seven to fourteen in number; they run obliquely under the conjunctiva, and open by separate orifices into the fornix conjunctivæ at its upper and outer part.

The lachrymal gland is similar in structure to the salivary glands consisting of acini, which contain cuboidal cells having a large nucleus. In the centre of each acinus the duct begins.

The nervous mechanism of the lachrymal gland is very complex. A flow of tears may easily be excited in a reflex manner by stimuli applied to the conjunctiva, the nasal mucous membrane, the tongue, the optic nerve, &c.; and in a direct manner by the emotions.

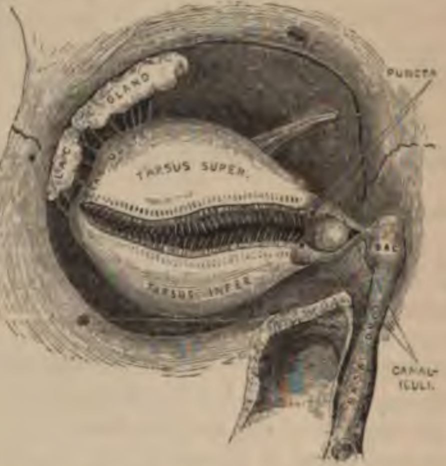

FIG. 15.—Dissection of the Lachrymal Apparatus.

The lachrymal canaliculi are two in number, situated on the margin of each lid, at the inner angle. Each commences by a small aperture, **the punctum lachrymale,** which may be seen situated on a slight eminence (papilla). The upper canal is rather smaller than the lower, it first ascends and then turns downwards and inwards, to the lachrymal sac. The lower canal first descends, and then runs horizontally to the sac. They unite just before reaching the sac. Near the punctum the diameter of each canaliculus is about 0·5 mm., just beyond this it becomes suddenly dilated to 1 mm., and for the remaining two-thirds of its course it is about 0·6 mm. Its walls are extremely thin, and are lined by pavement epithelium.

The lachrymal sac is the upper dilated portion of the passage which conveys the tears from the lachrymal canals to the cavity of the nose. It is situated in a deep groove formed by the lachrymal and superior maxillary bones. Its upper end is closed and rounded, and its lower part tapers off into the nasal duct. On its outer side and rather anteriorly it receives the canaliculi.

In front of it are the tendo palpebrarum and some fibres of the orbicular muscle. It is composed of fibrous and elastic tissue, and adheres closely to the bones. It is lined by ciliated epithelium.

The nasal duct extends from the lachrymal sac to the inferior meatus of the nose. The osseous canal is formed by the superior maxillary, the lachrymal, and the inferior turbinated bones. This is lined by a tube of fibrous membrane, continuous with that of the lachrymal sac, and is similarly lined with ciliated epithelium. At the entrance into the inferior meatus there is sometimes an imperfect valvular arrangement of the mucous membrane. The length of the duct varies with the development of the face. Its **direction** is downwards, and slightly outwards, and backwards.

The **lachrymal secretion** is a faintly alkaline fluid containing about one per cent. of solids, of which a small part is proteid in composition. It passes by the lachrymal ducts into the sac of the conjunctiva, where it serves to moisten the anterior part of the eye. Its exit from the sac of the conjunctiva is effected by the act of winking, which takes place at frequent intervals. In this act of closure of the lids not only is there contraction of the palpebral portion of the orbicularis, but also of those fibres which are in front of the lachrymal sac; thus, the palpebral fissure being closed, the tears are pressed successively through the puncta lachrymalia, the canaliculi, the lachrymal sac, and the nasal duct into the inferior meatus of the nose, where they are evaporated by the act of respiration.

Diseases of the Lachrymal Gland.

Inflammation of the lachrymal gland (dacryo-adenitis) is extremely rare. It may be acute or chronic. In the **acute form** there is great swelling and redness of the upper lid, especially towards the outer angle of the orbit. The swelling may be so great as to displace the globe downwards and inwards, in which case the upward and outward movements of the eye are affected. The conjunctiva is injected, and frequently there is chemosis. Pain is severe, of a throbbing nature, and increased on pressure. It may terminate by resolution, it may go on to suppuration, or it may become chronic.

The formation of abscess is indicated by increased local redness, swelling, and intensification of the throbbing pain.

In **chronic inflammation** of the gland there is also considerable swelling, but the other symptoms of the acute form are less severe. Digital examination in the region of the gland shows it to be distinctly enlarged, but there is less redness of the skin of the eyelid, little or no chemosis, pain is slight, and not of a throbbing nature; and there is scarcely any tenderness on pressure.

Causes.—Dacryo-adenitis, whether acute or chronic, is generally caused by injury to the parts in the region of the gland. It may be the result of chronic conjunctivitis.

Treatment.—In the early stage the acute form of inflammation should be combated by energetic antiphlogistic measures, such as the local application of several leeches, frequent hot-water fomentations, emollient compresses bandaged on and kept warm by a large pad of cotton-wool. When suppuration is evidently established, a free incision should at once be made by plunging a scalpel into the most prominent part of the swelling, the point of the knife being carefully kept away from the globe; the incision should, if possible, be made through the conjunctiva so as to avoid the formation of lachrymal fistula; but if there is pointing through the skin of the upper lid this must be the point of election. When the affection is chronic, any patent cause of the affection should be as far as possible removed. The application of an ointment of mercury and belladonna to the surrounding surface may be useful.

Hypertrophy of the lachrymal gland has been occasionally seen, but is very rare, most of the cases described under this name being probably sarcomata. It is characterised by the presence of a circumscribed, nodular, somewhat elastic tumour in the region of the gland. It is not painful or tender, nor is there any marked swelling of the upper lid. It occurs in young subjects, and has been seen shortly after birth. It always increases, though its growth is usually slow. The edge of the tumour can be distinctly felt beneath the orbital ridge, as it gradually extends over the upper part of the globe.

Pathology.—These tumours do not present the microscopic characters of simple hypertrophy of gland tissue. Those which

I have examined have presented the appearance of fibro-sarcoma or adeno-sarcoma.

Treatment of a palliative nature may at first be tried; iodide of potassium may be given internally, and absorbents applied locally to the surface; but the tumour will generally be found to increase, in which case extirpation of the whole mass is the only reliable remedy.

Operation for extirpation of the lachrymal gland.—The patient is to be fully anæsthetised in the supine position upon a moderately high table. Instruments required are a small scalpel, a horn spatula, a vulsellum forceps, curved scissors, toothed forceps, and artery forceps. The operator should stand on the patient's right, his assistant on the patient's left. The upper lid is to be drawn down until the lower edge of the eyebrow becomes on a level with the edge of the orbit. An incision is then made parallel with the eyebrow and quite close to its lower part, extending from the middle of the upper edge of the orbit as far as its outer angle. All structures are to be divided down to the periosteum. The fibrous tissue of the palpebral ligament will now be exposed, and must be carefully divided close to the edge of the orbit with scissors or scalpel. The lachrymal gland, if large, will now present itself to view; if small, it will be found deeply seated in the lachrymal fossa; in either case it must be firmly seized with the vulsellum forceps and dissected from its surrounding connective tissue with scissors. The dissection should be begun from the orbital surface of the gland. In clearing it from its ocular relations great care should be taken to *avoid laceration of the levator palpebræ* muscle. The edges of the wound are to be brought together by fine silk or catgut sutures, and a light compress of dry lint applied. The antiseptic method of operating is very desirable here.

Cysts of the lachrymal gland sometimes occur. They are mostly due to obstruction of the excretory ducts, but sometimes are caused by hydatids. When present they may be felt as a small tumour of from 1 cm. or 2 cm. diameter in the upper and outer angle of the orbit. On raising the upper lid they may often be recognised by their transparency beneath the conjunctiva.

Treatment.—Simple puncture through the conjunctiva is sometimes sufficient to establish a cure, but it is better to remove a small portion of the wall of the cyst in addition to the puncture. Some surgeons prefer to pass a ligature of silk through the cyst, which is gradually tightened, and finally ulcerates through; others recommend extirpation of the lachrymal gland.

Fistula of the lachrymal gland is usually the result of injury or of abscess. A small opening exists in the skin near the upper and outer angle of the orbit through which the tears almost constantly escape. The flow of tears through this abnormal passage may be increased by irritation of the conjunctiva.

Treatment.—The edges of the opening will sometimes unite by the application of solid nitrate of silver every few days, or by the introduction of a wire of the thermal cautery at a dull red heat. These measures may be assisted by previously establishing an artificial opening into the sac of the conjunctiva by the introduction of a seton in the region of the lachrymal ducts. Some cases are obstinate and require ultimate extirpation of the gland.

Affections of the drainage system may be classified as those of the puncta lachrymalia, those of the canaliculi, and those of the lachrymal sac and nasal duct. In each of these affections *lachrymation*, or overflow of tears (epiphora), is a troublesome symptom, which is always aggravated by exposure of the eye to cold or wind, or by any cause which would increase the secretion of the lachrymal gland.

Displacement of the punctum of the lower lid is a not unfrequent cause of lachrymation. It occurs in elderly people in whom the orbicularis muscle has become relaxed, so that the lower lid, with its punctum, falls away from its proper apposition to the globe. The punctum is often drawn outwards in cases of ectropion.

Treatment.—This must vary with the cause of the eversion, and its degree. If the punctum cannot be restored to its proper position the best method of restoring conduction of the tears into the lachrymal sac is by slitting up the lower canaliculus, so that they may enter its channel nearer the sac.

Operation for slitting up the lower canaliculus.—No anæsthetic is required, except in the case of children and persons of nervous temperament. Patient to be seated on an ordinary chair with the head thrown back, so that the face looks towards the ceiling. Operator to stand behind the chair. The lower lid is to be tensely drawn downwards and outwards, and slightly everted by the thumb of one hand (fig. 18), while with the other hand the probe point of Weber's canaliculus knife (fig. 16) is introduced vertically. When the knife has well entered the canaliculus its point is to be directed inwards, and slightly backwards in the direction of the lachrymal sac, until it reaches the inner wall. The edge of the knife during its passage is to be turned towards the conjunctiva, so as to divide the canaliculus close to the muco-cutaneous junction. When the knife has thus reached the inner wall of the sac, it must be boldly brought up from the horizontal to the vertical position, the eyelid being still kept tensely drawn outwards by the opposite thumb. Thus the whole length of the canaliculus is divided quite into the sac.

Several other methods of slitting up the canaliculus are adopted. A fine grooved director (Critchett's) is passed through the canaliculus, along which a fine knife is passed into the sac. Fine scissors are sometimes used, one blade of which is passed into the canaliculus.

Various modifications of the knife represented in fig. 16, such as Bowman's, Wecker's, Liebreich's, and others, are used. It sometimes happens that the punctum is very small, and will not admit the probe-point of the knife; in these cases a fine conical probe should be first introduced, by which means it may be sufficiently dilated to admit the knife.

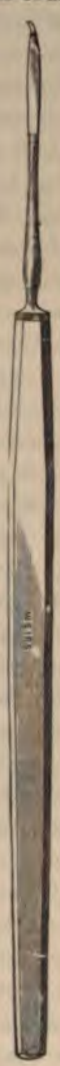

FIG. 16.
Weber's Canaliculus Knife.

Obstruction of the lower canaliculus is not unfrequent. It may be caused by inflammation of the mucous membrane extending from the conjunctiva, or by the presence of a foreign body such as an eyelash. It is sometimes due to chalky concretions, and is often the result of cicatrix following burns, and lacerated wounds. The upper canaliculus is less frequently affected except in the case of wounds and burns.

Treatment.—This must vary as the cause of the obstruction or obliteration. When a foreign body or concretion is present it should if possible be removed with fine forceps. When its removal is found to be impracticable, the canaliculus should be slit up. There is sometimes a difficulty in finding any opening into the canaliculus. In this case careful search should be made in the region of the punctum with a fine conical probe; this will sometimes find an entrance when no aperture is visible, and should then be forcibly passed in the direction of the canaliculus, so as to dilate it sufficiently for the reception of the knife. Mr. Streatfeild has an ingenious method of finding the canal in these cases. Having first slit up the upper canaliculus, he passes a piece of bent silver wire through this into the lower one. When no opening can thus be found, a minute aperture should be made in the direction of the canal at its middle third; this can be done with a fine knife or scissors, and will afford greater facility of entrance than incision of the tissues about the punctum. A very frequent point of obstruction is just at the entrance to the lachrymal sac. This is indicated by the movement of the whole lower lid when the knife or probe is pressed towards the sac. Firm pressure in the inward and slightly backward direction will generally overcome this resistance.

Stricture of the nasal duct is the most common affection of the lachrymal apparatus.

Cause.—The original cause of this affection is frequently difficult to make out. It appears in many cases, however, to commence by extension of catarrhal inflammation of the lining membrane of the nose. It is possible for it to be caused by extension from the conjunctiva through the lachrymal sac, but more frequently it is the obstruction which causes the conjunctivitis. In strumous and syphilitic subjects, periostitis of the bones forming the nasal canal is a frequent cause of obstruction by extension of inflammation to the fibro-mucous lining. It may also be caused by injury to the nasal bones, and by the existence of carious teeth in the upper jaw. Pressure, causing more or less obliteration of the canal by tumours of various kinds, as fibro-sarcoma, myxoma, and exostosis developed in the upper jaw, the antrum, or the nasal fassa, is not uncommon.

The seat of the stricture is usually at the upper part of the tube just below its junction with the lachrymal sac, but it may be situated anywhere in its course.

The symptoms of stricture of the nasal duct are very variable. In some cases the only observable departure from the normal condition is an overflow of the tears, which is increased by exposure to cold wind or bright light. There may be little or no inflammatory redness of the conjunctiva. The puncta lachrymalia and canaliculi are found to be quite patent, and in their normal position. There is no perceptible tumour in the region of the lachrymal sac. On making firm pressure with the finger over the region of the sac there may be no regurgitation of its contents; more frequently, however, there is some reflux of a viscid secretion through the canaliculi, which may be quite clear and colourless, or may be more or less purulent, but is always of a more tenacious character than the tears. In the majority of cases, however, there is distinct **swelling of the lachrymal sac** (chronic dacryo-cystitis, mucocele, blenorrhœa). The amount of swelling varies from a mere fullness to an absolute protuberance of the skin just below the internal palpebral ligament. Firm pressure with the finger over this will usually cause the dispersion of its contents either upwards through the canaliculi, or downwards through the nasal duct. The nature of this liquid varies according to the gravity of the lesions of the sac; it may be simple mucus or muco-pus, or even pus. Lachrymation is troublesome, causing irritation and redness of the conjunctiva and eyelids. The swelling is usually free from pain and devoid of tenderness, even on pressure; it is localised and increases but slowly. It is, however, liable at any time to take on an active state of inflammation and suppuration, thus constituting **abscess of the lachrymal sac,** in which the symptoms are altogether more severe. The swelling now becomes suddenly increased, and of a tense brawny nature. The root of the nose, the lower part of the frontal region, the upper part of the cheek, are œdematous, the eyelids, also, are frequently infiltrated. The skin over the region of the lachrymal sac and the surrounding parts is of a dusky red colour. There are intense local pain and heat in addition to the redness and swelling. General symptoms, such as pyrexia, rigors, and even vomiting, may occur. This kind of inflammation of the sac never terminates in resolution; suppuration first takes place inside the sac, forming an abscess, which soon perforates its walls, setting up inflammation of the surrounding cellular tissue.

Perforation of the wall of the sac is attended by a diminution of the pain which, although it does not disappear, becomes greatly lessened in intensity. Then commences the more serious inflammation and swelling of the tissues around the sac and in its vicinity, leading to the formation of abscess, which, if untreated by surgical interference, usually terminates by pointing through the skin about 1 cm. below the lower punctum lachrymale. This opening gives exit at first to purulent matter, which gradually decreases as the inflammation and swelling subside. It may heal up of its own accord, but generally remains as a **fistula of the lachrymal sac**, giving exit at first to the purulent matter, then to muco-pus mixed with the tears, and finally to the tears alone, which ought to have passed down the nasal duct.

The *diagnosis* of swelling of the lachrymal sac is easily made when there is but little inflammatory trouble. Its situation, its history and accompanying lachrymation, its more or less complete disappearance on firm pressure, serve to distinguish it from other tumours of this region. When inflammation is severe, it may at first simulate erysipelas of the eyelids, but in abscess of the sac we have seen that the redness is most intense over the seat of inflammation, and shades off and becomes simple œdema of the surrounding parts, that there is always a history of lachrymation, and generally of tumour of the sac. In erysipelas the redness is equal all over the swelling, its outer edge is seen to spread to surrounding parts, and there is no history of previous lachrymation or tumour. It may also be difficult to say whether an abscess at the inner angle of the eye had its commencement within or outside the sac. Here again the previous history of overflow of tears and of tumour of the sac are useful aids to diagnosis, and all doubt can often be dispelled by pressure over the swelling when a regurgitation takes place through the puncta lachrymalia.

Stricture of the nasal duct also gives rise to the development of serious lesions of the cornea, conjunctiva, and eyelids. After prolonged obstruction a chronic inflammation of the conjunctiva is often established. This may spread to the edges of the eyelids, causing blepharitis and even ulceration. The cornea also often becomes affected with superficial, ill-defined, greyish-white opacities and ulcers. Any operation involving wound of the cornea, such as that of iridectomy or extraction of cataract that might be performed under this condition of lachrymation, would be seriously interfered with; the wound healing but slowly if at all, and suppuration being very easily provoked.

Treatment must be directed to the permanent cure of the stricture.

I. *When there is no abscess of the sac, but only swelling, or even only lachrymation,* the lower canaliculus should be slit up in the manner indicated above (p. 35), and a probe should be passed through the stricture at once. It should be passed again within forty-eight hours to prevent the closing up of the canaliculus, and the operation should be repeated twice or thrice a week until lachrymation has ceased, and all symptoms of obstruction have disappeared. Even then it is well to continue the probing once a week for a few times.

The kind of probe used is a matter of little importance so long as it is of the right calibre, and is passed in the proper direction—viz. downwards and rather outwards and backwards. Many varieties of probes are now in use. The original probes of Bowman were straight; they were about 12 cm. long and six in number, the largest, No. 6, being about 1 mm. in diameter. These are now altered in shape and size; instead of being straight they are curved in opposite directions towards each end, and instead of being of equal calibre throughout they are bulbous towards each extremity, as shown in fig. 17. These larger probes number from 1 to 8,

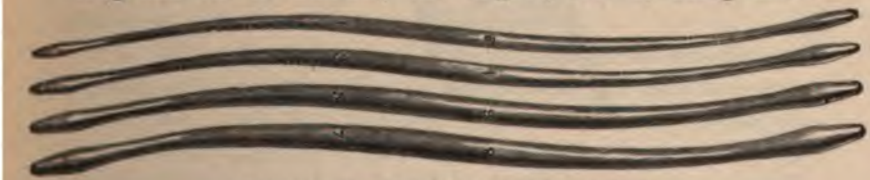

FIG. 17.—Set of Probes for the Nasal Duct.

No. 1 being about 1 mm. across the bulb, No. 8 about 3·5 mm., and the remainder of intermediate sizes. There are numerous other varieties of probes which it is not necessary to describe.

The mode of introducing the probe is similar to that of introducing the canaliculus knife (see fig. 18). It is passed horizontally along the canaliculus until it reaches the inner wall of the lachrymal sac, the lower lid being kept tense by the thumb of the opposite hand. The probe is known to be well inside the

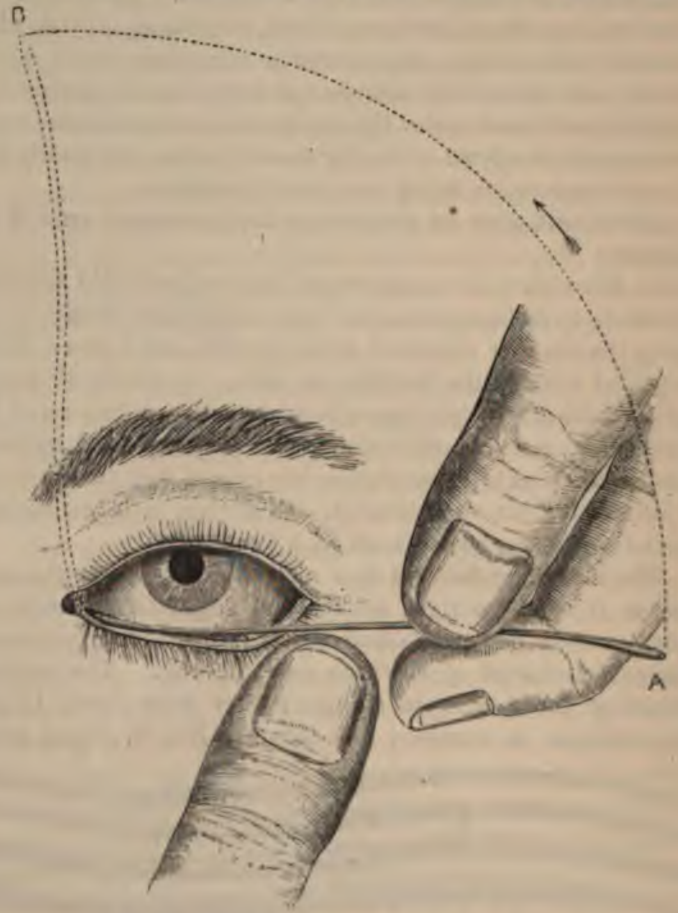

FIG. 18.—Probe in First and Second Positions.

sac by the resistance offered by the lachrymal bone, and by the absence of dragging on the skin of the lower lid. The end of the probe being kept in contact with the inner wall of the sac, it must now be brought from the horizontal to the vertical position and pushed down the duct. The direction of the duct, as we have seen, is downwards and slightly backwards and outwards; pretty firm pressure can be made in this direction. I usually commence with a probe of 2 mm. diameter; if this passes easily, I try the next size larger; if it does not pass without great force, I try smaller sizes until one is found which will pass through the stricture. It seldom happens that a stricture is so tight that it will not admit a probe of 0·5 mm. diameter. Thus we are enabled to form an estimate of the extent and the nature of the constriction. One of three methods can now be adopted, viz.: 1. *Gradual dilatation*, by slightly increasing the diameter of the probe used at each sitting. 2. *Rapid dilatation*, by the passage at one sitting of a probe of 2·5 mm. to 3·5 mm., and continuing this practice at after sittings. 3. *The incision* of the stricture by means of a knife, and the subsequent passage of probes. This is of great service in very tight strictures. The best knife for this purpose is that of **Stilling**. It is introduced into the lachrymal sac in the same way as the probe, and then forced down in the direction of the duct two or three times in succession, the blade being turned in different directions at each passage, after which probes of 1 mm., 2 mm., or 3 mm. can be passed. Other knives, such as those of Bowman and Weber, can be used for this purpose, but, owing to their brittleness and delicacy, their blades are apt to be left in the stricture.

II. *When there is abscess of the sac*, and fistula has not yet formed, an immediate effort should be made to give free exit to the pus. This should, if possible, be effected by slitting up one of the canaliculi; if, however, the swelling is so great as to prevent this, a puncture should be made by thrusting a small scalpel through the skin 1 cm. below the inner canthus, the direction of the cut being downwards and outwards. When fistula has been established by rupture of the abscess, or when the abscess has been opened by incision and the swelling has subsided, the lower canaliculus should be slit up so as to establish a free exit for any pus that may yet be retained in the sac or may be afterwards formed. Probing must now be attempted, but should there be any difficulty of introduction to the nasal duct, it is well to wait a few days for subsidence of inflammatory swelling of the mucous membrane of the sac and duct. Then a small probe can generally be introduced, and gradual or rapid dilatation or incision by Stilling's method may be performed. These inflammations of the sac, whether chronic or acute, very frequently yield to treatment by dilatation only; but in some cases, especially where there has been much suppuration, the cure is often accelerated by local astringents. An excellent astringent and antiseptic for this purpose is to be found in the use of a 2 per cent. to 4 per cent. solution of pure boracic acid. It should be injected into the sac by

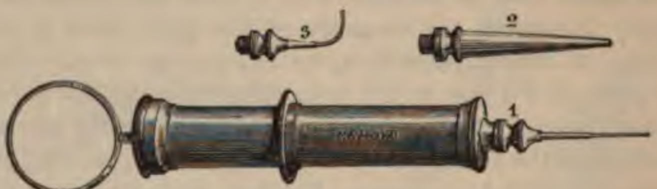

FIG. 19.—Syringe for Injecting Lachrymal Sac.

means of a syringe, the nozzle of which (fig. 19, 3) can be easily introduced, or the whole length of the duct can be treated by the use of a cannula (fig. 20, B) which is first passed down the duct in the same way as a probe, then attached to the syringe by the connecting tube D, and then gradually withdrawn as the solution is injected. Other solutions than that of boracic acid can be used for this purpose, such as those of alum, sulphate of zinc, and lapis divinus of the same strength. Solution of nitrate of silver of strength ½ per cent. is beneficial in some cases.

It sometimes happens that there is a tendency to closure by cicatrisation of the entrance to the sac, which renders the introduction of the probe difficult at each sitting. In such a case the insertion of a small silver or lead style of the shape shown in fig. 21 is very convenient. A probe should first be passed to ascertain the length of the duct, and a style of proper length being chosen, its upper end should be bent at right angles to the extent of 4 mm. or 5 mm. It is then introduced so that its lower end rests on the floor of the nose, and its upper bent portion lies in the groove of the open canaliculus. After its introduction it must be watched lest the parts become inflamed, in which case it must be removed and re-inserted after a few days; if the parts remain quiet, it can be allowed to remain for several weeks, and will be found to be of great service, the lachrymation being often improved even whilst the patient is wearing the style. This method is also useful in ordinary cases where the passage of the probe is inconvenient or impossible owing to the patient living at a distance, or being unable to attend.

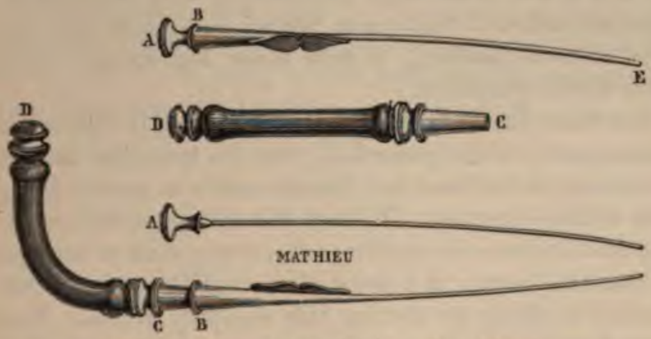

FIG. 20.—Cannulas for Injecting Nasal Duct.

The general health of the patient should be carefully looked after. Fresh air, good nourishing diet, tonic medicines, and local cleanliness are very important here as in other surgical affections. When there has been great distension of the sac, its restoration is much facilitated by gentle pressure in the form of a compress and light bandage.

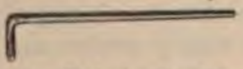

FIG. 21.—Style for Nasal Duct.

In certain obstinate cases, where overflow of the tears still persists after all the efforts above indicated have failed, the extirpation of the lachrymal gland is recommended. The removal of this organ (see p. 33) has been repeatedly performed without injurious results; and the operation is well spoken of by Lawrence, Abadie, and other surgeons.

Obliteration of the lachrymal sac, by means of the actual cautery, strong caustics, as the potassa cum calce, chloride of zinc, &c., is also occasionally practised by some surgeons in obstinate ulceration of that organ, the sac being first laid open by a free external incision. I have never had occasion to resort to this heroic treatment.

The above methods of treatment are strongly objected to by some surgeons on the grounds (1) that the lachrymal sac acts as an aspirator to the tears, and that its action as such is impaired by an artificial opening; (2) that the normal condition of the nasal duct is that of a capillary tube, or a system of such tubes, and that the passage of a probe of above 0·75 mm. or 1 mm. in diameter is likely to destroy this capillary action. Perhaps the best answer to these objections is to be found in the fact that so many cases are thus successfully treated by this method; and further, that those who condemn this practice in theory are frequently obliged to resort to it in practice, although they may content themselves with probes rather smaller than we are accustomed to use.

Fistula of the lachrymal sac is a frequent result of neglected inflammation. It consists of a sinus extending from the sac to the skin just below (about 1 cm.) the inner canthus. The opening is usually small, and gives passage to the tears and mucus, which ought to pass down the nasal duct. The skin and subcutaneous tissue in the vicinity of the fistula may be but little affected, but is usually swollen and red; sometimes there is indolent ulceration extending over a considerable area of the cheek.

Treatment must first be directed to the stricture (p. 39). This being so improved that the tears can flow through the nasal duct, we may attack the fistula. In slight cases the application of simple astringents by means of a compress of lint is often sufficient. In old, inflamed, and ulcerated cases this is not sufficient. Various methods of promoting their healing are employed, such as paring the edges, the galvanocautery, &c. I have found the most speedy and efficient help in these chronic cases from the use of the lupus scoop. I first open up the canaliculus and nasal duct, and then proceed to scrape away all the red unhealthy surrounding skin as well as the ulcerated surface. The process is very painful, and requires an anæsthetic. When the scraping is effectually done there is considerable oozing of blood. Water dressing is applied, and the surface usually heals rapidly. To prevent or lessen cicatricial contraction, I usually graft some patches of skin from another part of the body in the same way as indicated on p. 24; this accelerates the healing of the wound.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE AFFECTIONS OF THE CONJUNCTIVA.

THE VARIETIES OF CONJUNCTIVITIS—PTERYGIUM—PINGUECULA—AMYLOID DEGENERATION—XEROSIS—SARCOMA.

INFLAMMATIONS of the conjunctiva can be conveniently divided into the following five classes:

1. *Purulent conjunctivitis*: *a*, gonorrhœal ophthalmia; *b*, ophthalmia neonatorum.
2. *Muco-purulent conjunctivitis.*
3. *Granular conjunctivitis.*
4. *Phlyctenular conjunctivitis.*
5. *Membranous conjunctivitis.*

Purulent conjunctivitis (also called purulent ophthalmia, gonorrhœal ophthalmia, ophthalmia neonatorum, contagious ophthalmia, military ophthalmia, Egyptian ophthalmia).

Causes.—The best known cause is indisputably that of the inoculation of the conjunctiva with certain pathological products. Of these the discharge from the urethra or vagina during an attack of acute or chronic gonorrhœa are very common examples. It is remarkable that discharge from a very slight affection of the urethra will often set up a violent inflammation in the conjunctiva. This, no doubt, is due to the susceptibility of the recipient, and is also influenced by the previous condition of the eyelids, and of the general health. If a patient has been previously suffering from *granular conjunctivitis*, a very slight cause is sufficient to establish purulent inflammation. The discharge from an eye affected with *purulent conjunctivitis* is very liable to set up similar and even more severe affection in a healthy eye, either of the same patient or of others. Hence the necessity of great caution and cleanliness, both on the part of the patient and of the surgeon, and others who have to do with the patient. With regard to the period of the disease at which the discharge is most virulent by inoculation, Piringer[1] has made some interesting experiments, from which he infers that for the first few hours, whilst the secretion is serous, it is comparatively inoffensive, producing only a slight muco-purulent affection, or no perceptible effect; that when suppuration has set in, the effect of the inoculation is much more powerful, producing in all cases purulent conjunctivitis, which is sometimes of the most violent and destructive nature; and that a step later, when suppuration has ceased and given place to serous exudation, the effect of inoculation is similar to that of the very early secretion. He also found that by dilution with water the most active and virulent pus rapidly lost its contagious properties.

Muco-purulent conjunctivitis, when conveyed from one person to another, who is in a weak condition, may become entirely purulent.

The atmosphere is considered by some high authorities to be the means of the conveyance of contagious particles, and so placing them in contact with the conjunctiva; this theory is advanced in explanation of epidemic outbreaks such as occur in crowded dwellings, hospitals, barracks, &c. Careful inquiry, however, in such cases will generally elicit the fact that many facilities of direct inoculation are present, such as several children sleeping together, the use of a common towel, &c. Such outbreaks of the disease illustrate very well what has been said above as to the susceptibility to infection of patients who have suffered from granular conjunctivitis; and in order to check such an outbreak in a school or similar institution, it is essential, not only to isolate those actually suffering from purulent conjunctivitis, but also those who present the granular affection, lest the latter should themselves become foci of infection. Concerning the cause of this affection in the newly born (ophthalmia neonatorum), the prevailing opinion, and that in which I heartily concur, is that it arises from the introduction of purulent discharge from some part of the genito-urinary tract of the mother into the conjunctival sac of the infant shortly after parturition. The great frequency of purulent discharges from the os uteri in pregnant women is universally admitted; and it is easy to understand how this could come into contact with the eyelids during the passage of the head per vaginam, shortly after which the child opens its eyes. Hence the necessity of scrupulous care in washing the eyes of the newly born.

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[1] Quoted by Abadie. *Maladies des Yeux*: Paris, 1876.

Symptoms.—Purulent conjunctivitis usually commences in one to four days after infection; in some cases its progress is so rapid that it attains its maximum intensity in forty-eight hours. At first there is a gritty sensation in the eye; this is soon followed by pain, which sometimes becomes excruciating in character. The eyelids become red, infiltrated, and swollen to such a degree that they can only with difficulty be everted; the palpebral conjunctiva is greatly congested and swollen; the ocular conjunctiva is also infiltrated, and forms an elevated ridge of chemosis all round the cornea, which in some cases is sufficiently prominent to overlap and conceal its peripheral portion. The discharge at first consists only of a serous fluid containing a few flocculi of pus, but it soon becomes thicker, and of a yellow or even greenish-yellow colour. This purulent secretion fills the palpebral sac, and generally flows over on to the cheek; at times it is retained by the swollen lids, and causes great danger to the globe by the pressure thus exerted. The establishment of free suppuration is marked by immediate relief of pain and some diminution of swelling; this may lead the patient to consider his condition to be improving, but in reality the risk of serious and irreparable mischief commencing in the cornea is greater now than at any other period of the disease. The great danger of purulent conjunctivitis is lest the cornea should slough or become ulcerated. Ulcers vary in their position and depth; a very common situation is beneath the limbus conjunctivæ; in whatever part of the cornea they occur, they are very likely indeed to lead to its perforation. When we come to treat of affections of the cornea we shall see that a perforating ulcer from any cause may be followed by dangerous sequelæ; but when the perforation takes place in the course of an attack of purulent conjunctivitis, we have the additional danger lest the suppuration should immediately extend to the whole eye.

It occasionally happens that the peripheral ulceration, extending round a large portion or the whole of the circumference of the cornea, so interferes with its nutrition that the whole membrane sloughs.

When the swelling of the lids has subsided, the conjunctiva is found to have lost its normal smooth appearance, and to have become rough and rugose, presenting numerous papillæ over its entire surface, more especially over the upper and lower culs-de-sac.

After a variable time the discharge diminishes in quantity, becomes thinner, and finally gives place to a serous fluid containing a few flocculi of muco-pus. If untreated, this condition may become chronic, giving rise to deformities of the lids, such as trichiasis, entropion, ectropion, and to corneal affections, as ulcers, pannus, &c.

Gonorrhœal ophthalmia is the most acute form of purulent conjunctivitis. It is caused by the introduction of the urethral discharge to the conjunctival sac, either directly by means of the hand, or indirectly by the use of a contaminated towel or pocket-handkerchief. It is more common in men than in women. The right eye is more frequently attacked than the left. Its progress is usually very rapid and severe; from the outset there is acute pain, chemosis, and great swelling of the lids. If neglected or improperly treated, there may be total destruction of the cornea, from abscess, ulceration, or sloughing, in the course of a few days.

Ophthalmia neonatorum—the form of purulent conjunctivitis which attacks newly born children—is less virulent than the gonorrhœal, but is sufficiently destructive in its nature to require prompt and energetic treatment. Its probable cause has been already mentioned. Its symptoms and complications are essentially the same as those of the gonorrhœal and other forms of the affection occurring in adults, although somewhat less pronounced in degree. It usually occurs about the third or fourth day after birth. More blindness is caused by ophthalmia neonatorum than by any other single affection of the eyes; but this is due solely to the fact that its treatment is frequently left to persons who are ignorant or incompetent.

Treatment.—When not occurring in the newly born the indications are:

1. To protect the healthy eye when only one is attacked.

2. To reduce the pressure upon the globe which is caused by the swollen lids and the retained purulent secretion.

3. To cut short the inflammatory process, and to restore the conjunctiva to its normal condition.

4. To treat the complications.

1. *To protect the healthy eye.*—(i) The closed lids may be covered with absorbent cotton-wool, which is secured by collodion and a bandage or sticking-plaster.

(ii) Buller's shield may be employed. This has the double advantage of giving the patient a certain amount of vision, and of enabling the surgeon to examine the eye without disturbing its dressings. It is constructed as follows: Take a watch-glass and two pieces of india-rubber plaster, one about 4½ in., the other 4 in. square; cut a round hole slightly smaller than the watch-glass in the middle of each piece of plaster. Then insert the watch-glass between the two pieces of plaster, and stick them together so as to form a small window. Now arrange the plaster by its free edge along the nose, forehead, and cheek, leaving only the lower and outer angle a little open for purposes of ventilation.

2. *To reduce the pressure upon the globe.*—In some cases the tension of the eyelids is so great that the cornea is in danger of strangulation from pressure. Under these circumstances the lids should, if possible, be everted and their inner surfaces freely scarified. Incisions with a small, sharp scalpel should be made parallel to the edge of the everted lids from near the ciliary margin as far back as the fornix conjunctivæ. Even the ocular conjunctiva may be benefited by a few radial cuts. The incisions should be sufficiently deep to induce free hæmorrhage. When it is found impossible to evert the eyelids, either of the following methods may be adopted: (1) *Division of the outer canthus* as far as the outer angle of the orbit. This can be done with a pair of strong sharp scissors, or by means of a scalpel and a grooved director. (2) *By vertical division of the upper lid* as recommended by the late Mr. Critchett. A grooved director is first passed beneath the middle

of the upper lid; a sharp-pointed bistoury is then inserted into the groove of the director, and made to perforate the lid at its upper part; all the structures of the latter are then divided. The flaps thus formed can, if desirable, be stitched back. The hæmorrhage following these scarifications, and even that of the division of the lids, is always beneficial in reducing the swelling and cutting short the inflammatory process. The incisions should be immediately followed by the copious use of tepid, slightly carbolised water, with the object of encouraging the local bleeding and thoroughly removing accumulated pus. This done, the closed lids should be kept constantly cold and wet by means of pledgets of lint dipped in iced water. The latter may with advantage contain ½ per cent. of carbolic acid; and the lint should be changed every half hour or so. Besides this, the inside of the lids must be frequently cleansed, say every one or two hours, by thorough washing with similar carbolised water. On the following day the congestion and swelling may still be so great as to render a second scarification advisable, or it may be better to cauterise the inner surface of the lids with strong nitrate of silver, and to continue the frequent ablutions and cold applications.

3. *To cut short the inflammatory process.* (i) *The best and most effectual treatment consists in the application of solid nitrate of silver* (F. 1) *to the inner surfaces of the eyelids once in twenty-four hours, combined with the constant external application of iced carbolised water, and frequent ablutions of the conjunctival sac.* The process is tedious, and requires the services of one or two nurses. The lids must be well everted and cleansed, and the caustic freely passed over the conjunctival surface; they must then be again washed, in order to remove the superfluous silver nitrate before they are inverted. This should be repeated once in twenty-four hours, and in the interval the eyelids are to be everted, and the conjunctival sac well cleared of all accumulated secretion every one or two hours. Ice-cold applications should be kept constantly applied to the outside of the lids. This may be effected by a dry ice-bag, or better by pledgets of lint dipped in iced carbolised (½ per cent.) water. It will be found that the lint requires changing every ten or fifteen minutes.

Two or three days of such treatment usually suffices to reduce the swelling, inflammation, and amount of discharge, after which the use of milder astringent applications, as the sulphate of copper or iodoform, may be substituted for the nitrate of silver; and the cold applications may be discontinued whilst a simple ointment is used to anoint the lids.

(ii) When the above process cannot be thoroughly carried out, and when the affection is comparatively mild in degree, we may use a 4 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver to paint the conjunctiva instead of the solid nitrate. It should be washed off again before the lids are inverted. The conjunctival sac should be thoroughly cleansed with ½ per cent. solution of boracic or carbolic acid every one or two hours, and the eyelids either anointed with simple ointment, or kept cool by wet lint.

Iodoform has been recently used with great success in the treatment of purulent conjunctivitis. It can be best used in vaseline of strength 4 per cent., and a very convenient and efficient way of applying it is by means of a glass syringe with a flattened nozzle (Bader's). By means of this the ointment can be introduced well into the upper cul-de-sac without everting the lids.

As the acute symptoms of purulent conjunctivitis subside, the discharge becomes diminished in quantity, then thin and muco-purulent, and finally ceases. The mucous membrane of the lids continues to be thickened and red; it is often very rough, and sometimes quite granular. The treatment at this stage must be similar to that for granular conjunctivitis.

(iii) *In ophthalmia neonatorum* both eyes are generally attacked; even when one eye only is affected the use of Buller's shield is hardly applicable. The other eye should therefore be closed and secured from infection by cotton-wool, collodion, and strapping. The treatment here is the same in principle as in the adult; but, owing to the tender age and delicacy of the subject, it requires a few remarks as to detail. The surgeon should always see the child at least once in twenty-four hours. In order to examine the eye, he, being seated, directs the nurse to place the child's head between his knees, which are protected by a towel. He then first cleanses the eyes by douching with pellets of cotton-wool and carbolised tepid water; next he thoroughly everts both the eyelids and cleanses them; then he applies, not the solid stick, but a 4 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver by means of a camel's hair brush to the whole of the mucous membrane of the lids, and particularly to that of the upper cul-de-sac; he then again washes away the superfluous nitrate by douching with the carbolised water, and finally closes the lids. Having done this he raises the upper lid by means of Desmarre's retractor (fig. 22) in order to examine the condition of the cornea. If there are signs of inflammation or ulcer of this structure, a few drops of atropine solution should be applied. Finally he anoints the edges of the lids with simple or iodoform ointment, and instructs the nurse or mother of the child to cleanse the eyes thoroughly every hour with tepid carbolised water ($\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.).

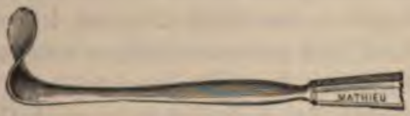

FIG. 22.—Lid Retractor.

4. *To treat the complications.*—When cases are seen in the very early stage, and can be properly treated, the inflammatory process can generally be subdued before the cornea or the deeper structures are affected.

When the cornea is found to present signs of inflammation, abscess, or ulcer, some atropine solution, 1 per cent., should be dropped into the palpebral aperture after each dressing. The iris in such cases is very likely to be inflamed, and this will tend to dilate the pupil and so prevent the formation of adhesions (synechiæ). The existence of lesions of the cornea does not contraindicate the treatment above described; but in the case of ulcers, especially when deep, greater care is required in everting the lids, lest the pressure upon the globe should cause perforation of the ulcer. Where perforation of the cornea is imminent, it may be advisable to perform paracentesis of the anterior chamber towards the periphery of the cornea, with the view of reducing intra-ocular tension, and so preventing the rupture. When the conjunctivitis has subsided, the corneal lesions can be treated according to the rules given under the head of ulcers of the cornea.

Muco-purulent conjunctivitis (catarrhal ophthalmia) is of very frequent occurrence.

Causes.—Contagion, sudden exposure to cold, irritating particles of dust in the atmosphere, affections of the eyelids, as trichiasis, entropion, ectropion, and obstructed lachrymal ducts, are all causes, as also are errors of refraction, especially hypermetropia and hypermetropic astigmatism, in which constant exercise of the accommodation tends to induce hyperæmia of the conjunctiva. The secretions of muco-purulent conjunctivitis are themselves contagious, and it is usual to find various members of the same household simultaneously or successively attacked. The contagious nature of the affection renders an outbreak in large communities of great importance. Cases should be isolated, and strict carefulness enforced, not only to prevent actual contact of the discharge with the eyes of others by means of towels, &c., but also to prevent the atmosphere becoming charged with particles of secretion; a precaution which is especially necessary in the case of schools of the poorer class, where the dormitories are often overcrowded and ill-ventilated. This form of ophthalmia is much more common among the poor than the well-to-do, although the latter class is by no means exempt from the malady. It also occurs in the exanthemata of childhood, especially measles.

Symptoms.—This affection presents itself under many different aspects. (1) In the milder cases we find only slight redness of the palpebral conjunctiva and of the fornix conjunctivæ, hypersecretion of mucus, sticking together of the lids on awaking in the morning, and a more or less gritty feeling in the eyes.

(2) In the severer cases these symptoms are exaggerated; the mucous membrane of the lids and fornix is not only injected, but perceptibly swollen; and there is some injection of the ocular conjunctiva. In addition to hypersecretion of mucus, we find flocculi of muco-pus floating in the lower cul-de-sac. The adhesion of the eyelids on awaking is more marked, and

the edges of the lids are covered with a yellowish incrustation of inspissated muco-pus.

(3) A few cases are much more severe, and are often difficult to distinguish from purulent conjunctivitis. In fact, there is no sharp line of demarcation between the two affections, since cases of every intermediate degree of severity are met with. The chief diagnostic signs are the amount of œdematous tension of the lids and the character of the discharge. When muco-purulent conjunctivitis is attended with redness of the circum-corneal zone, it becomes important to distinguish it from other affections in which the same symptom exists. The chief of these are *iritis*, *episcleritis*, and *keratitis*.

(*a*) *In muco-purulent conjunctivitis* the redness at first is superficial, and chiefly confined to the conjunctiva. If the ocular conjunctiva be moved up and down by pressure of the finger through the lower lid, the injected vessels will be seen to move with the mucous membrane. The redness of the ocular conjunctiva is always accompanied by redness of the fornix conjunctivæ, and generally of that of the lids. The redness is not localised in patches. The iris is clear and bright, the pupil active, and the cornea clear.

(*b*) *In iritis* the circumcorneal zone of redness is deep-seated, and is not accompanied by redness of the fornix and palpebral conjunctiva. The injected vessels, being chiefly situated beneath the conjunctiva, do not move with the latter. The iris is less brilliant than normal, and at times is much altered in colour. The pupil is sluggish or inactive. The vision is impaired.

(*c*) *In episcleritis* the congestion is of a deep red colour; it is subconjunctival and localised—that is, it does not invade the whole circumcorneal zone, but appears in patches, which are usually situated opposite the palpebral fissure, near the outer edge of the cornea.

(*d*) *In keratitis* the injected vessels are deep-seated and fixed. The redness is most marked in the circumcorneal zone. The transparency of the cornea is always more or less diminished.

Treatment.—Any general predisposing causes should be as far as possible removed. Any error of refraction should be at once corrected by spectacles. When due to a local cause, such as trichiasis, entropion, stricture of nasal duct, &c., these should be cured by appropriate treatment. In the mildest forms of class 1, the use of any mild astringent (Formulæ Nos. 5, 8, 9, 14), to be dropped into the palpebral aperture three times daily, or used in the form of a lotion, together with the anointing of the lids with a simple ointment at night, is sufficient to arrest the disease. In class 2 it is necessary to inculcate strict cleanliness and caution with regard to the discharge. The eyes should be washed four or five times daily with tepid water and cotton-wool; after this astringent lotions should be applied, as for class 1, or a piece of cotton-wool may be soaked in the lotion and applied over the closed eyelids for ten or fifteen minutes at a time in the form of a compress. The edges of the lids should be constantly anointed with simple ointment to prevent adhesion. When the swelling and discharge are severe, as in class 3, the above rules as to treatment still apply; but I do not hesitate to evert the lids and apply a 4 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver to their inner surface once daily. This must of course be well washed away before inverting the lids.

Granular conjunctivitis (trachoma, follicular conjunctivitis, granular ophthalmia).

Causes.—The chief cause of this affection is contagion. This view is substantiated by the fact of its prevalence in pauper schools in past and even present times, also in prisons, barracks, and other places where there are crowded communities having facilities for the conveyance of the unhealthy secretions from eye to eye by means of towels and otherwise.

Cases do occur, however, which appear to be spontaneous, no source of affection appearing to be within the patient's reach. In all cases, whether produced by contagion or otherwise, the subjects of the affection appear to have been predisposed to it by ill-feeding, over-fatigue, bad ventilation, and other debilitating causes. It is rarely seen in the better classes of society.

Symptoms and Pathology.—This disease first appears in the form of numerous small, greyish, hemispherical, semi-transparent elevations, having a great resemblance to boiled sago grains (follicular granulations). These usually appear first in the upper and lower culs-de-sac, and thence spread to the lower and upper lids. This granular appearance, from which the malady derives its name, differs from pathological 'granulation tissue,' inasmuch as the mucous membrane is not ulcerated, and the submucous tissues have a characteristic arrangement. Beneath the mucous membrane we find these elevations to be composed of aggregations of lymphoid cells, those nearest the surface having undergone partial fatty degeneration. In the superficial part there is but little intercellular substance, but towards the base we find more or less connective tissue formation, with small branches of blood-vessels. After the follicular granulations have existed some time the adjacent papillæ become hypertrophied, and the whole lid assumes the rough villous appearance which is often left after catarrhal or purulent conjunctivitis (papillary granulations) (see fig. 23). As time goes on, the connective tissue element increases, and thus converts the papillæ and submucous tissue of the whole lid into a dense fibrous structure, which finally contracts and undergoes changes resembling those of cicatrices. The attack may be *acute* or *chronic*. There is a more or less copious muco-purulent secretion, gritty feeling as of sand in the eye, and photophobia. Sooner or later the cornea begins to suffer from the friction and irritation of the granular lids, and becomes ulcerated; or, more frequently, its superficial layers become opaque and vascular, which latter condition is known as *pannus*.

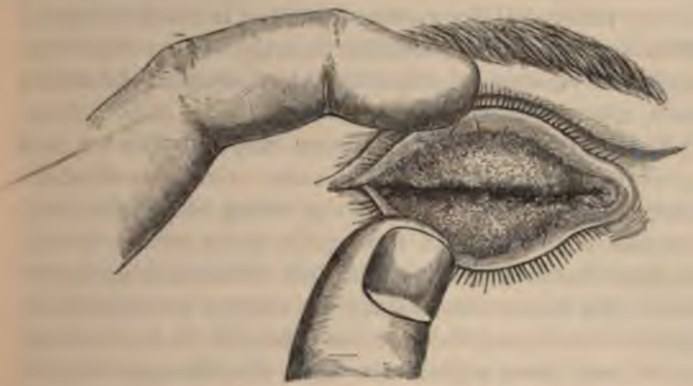

FIG. 23.—Everted Granular Lids.

Follicular granulations may be classified into three chief groups: (*a*) *Simple forms*, in which there is but slight redness of the free edges of the lids, a feeling of grittiness in the eyes, and an increase in the secretion of mucus. On everting the lids, however, we find fine granulations disseminated over the conjunctiva, mostly in the position of the upper and lower culs-de-sac. The conjunctiva over the tarsi is often free, or the granulations may be seen creeping over their borders near the outer canthus. The submucous tissues are but little affected.

(*b*) In a second class of cases the granulations constitute a diffuse *infiltration* of the conjunctiva of the culs-de-sac and of the palpebræ. The mucous membrane is greatly thickened, and presents a greyish gelatinous appearance. The edges of the lids are reddened; the mucous secretion is much increased, and often semi-purulent. Besides this, there soon supervene increased lachrymation, photophobia, and lesions of the cornea —pannus, ulceration, &c.

(*c*) *Malignant.*—In a third group may be placed a still more grave and troublesome class of cases—viz. those in which the granular affection extends to the ocular conjunctiva, and even to the cornea; whilst the whole inner surface of the eyelids is infiltrated and thickened with villous-looking hypertrophies of the mucous and submucous tissues, which bleed on the slightest touch, and which are so extensive as to cover up the upper and lower culs-de-sac when the lids are everted. The whole episcleral and corneal surfaces become filled with tortuous blood-vessels, and the cornea becomes quite opaque and fleshy-looking. There may be superficial, deep, or even perforating ulcer. The iris also may be inflamed by continuity of tissue.

The most discouraging feature of this malignant form of granular conjunctivitis is its obstinate progress from bad to worse. The inflamed tissues do not return to their normal state, but all appear to undergo an ultimate fibroid degeneration, similar, in fact, to the cicatricial contraction which follows true granulating ulcers of the skin. Thus the mucous membrane becomes thin and shrunken and tightly adherent to the tarsi, and the latter become shrunken and incurved.

Treatment must in all cases be general as well as local.

The general treatment consists in placing the patient under the best possible hygienic conditions. Good and plentiful nourishment, exercise in the open air, and well-ventilated sleeping accommodation are essential adjuncts to local treatment. Change of air or a sea voyage is frequently of great assistance. The eyes should be protected from bright light and from dust by smoked glasses. The patient should avoid as far as possible over fatigue of the eyes, especially by artificial light. Tonics, such as iron, quinine, cinchona, and cod liver oil, should be administered. Parrish's food, Easton's syrup, and similar forms of medicine are beneficial.

The local treatment consists in the application of astringents or caustics (F. 4, 8, 24, 33) to the inner surfaces of the lids and the culs-de-sac at regular periods.

In the use of these remedies it is important to bear in mind the delicate structure of the mucous membrane we are dealing with, and to realise the fact that our object is to restore it to its proper condition and function, and not to destroy it altogether.

1. *When the granular conjunctivitis is free from purulent discharge*, the safest and perhaps the most efficient remedy is the *daily* application of a crystal of sulphate of copper. The lids should be everted (see fig. 23), and a smooth crystal of this substance or of the lapis divinus (F. 33) applied to the surface of all the granulations, and especially to the upper cul-de-sac. These surfaces should then be lightly washed with cotton-wool and water, and the lids restored to their position. The applications should be repeated every twenty-four hours without remission until the granulations have disappeared, and even then they should be continued twice a week for several weeks. Should there be a lull in the apparent improvement by this daily application, it is well to substitute the weak nitrate of silver crayon (F. 4) for the copper every third or fourth day, always remembering to wash away the superfluous salt before returning the eyelids.

With these efforts, combined with attention to the improvement of the general health, there are few cases that will not yield to treatment in from five to ten weeks, especially when seen in the early stage. Unfortunately, however, this method is too elaborate to be carried out in any but private cases, the demand of time being greater than either the doctor or the patient can afford to give. It remains therefore either to teach the patient to apply the remedy himself, or to instruct some friend how to do it for him.

No doubt other remedies, such as the lapis divinus (F. 33), the glycerine of tannin, or the solution of tannin in syrup, would be equally beneficial if constantly applied. The subacetate of lead in solution or in powder is recommended by some surgeons; but knowing the facility with which lead becomes reduced, and deposited upon the cornea even in the slightest abrasions of that structure, and being also aware of the great frequency of these abrasions or ulcerations in trachomatous affections, I never employ this remedy.

2. *When there is considerable purulent discharge* in addition to the granular condition, the treatment should be similar to that prescribed for the severer forms of muco-purulent conjunctivitis. The granular surface of the eyelids and culs-de-sac should be first cleansed with water and cotton-wool, then painted with a 2 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver (F. 6), and again immediately washed, and the edges of the lids anointed with a simple ointment. This should be repeated every twenty-four hours until the discharge is diminished, when it may be replaced by a 1 per cent. solution of the same, or by the crystal of sulphate of copper.

3. If the patient is unable to attend for treatment more than once or twice a week, and is unable to get the sulphate of copper applied at home, I find it more effectual to use the stronger form of nitrate of silver crayon (F. 1) at each interview, and to prescribe an ointment of yellow oxide of mercury for use at home (F. 24), directing the patient to introduce a small quantity into the palpebral aperture twice daily.

When granulations have become excessively large it may be well to excise them at once before commencing treatment by astringents or caustics. Dr. Wolfe, of Glasgow, states that he finds very beneficial results from the combination of scarification of the granular surfaces, and the subsequent application of a solution of tannin in simple syrup. Some surgeons recommend the excision of the upper cul-de-sac of the conjunctiva as a radical cure for granulations. MM. Galezowski and Richet report very favourably of their results of this practice. I have performed this operation about a dozen times in conjunction with peritomy, and from this limited experience I consider it to be beneficial as regards the granulations.

4. In the malignant forms of this disease the results of treatment are most unsatisfactory. Here again the benefits of good constitutional treatment cannot be over-estimated. The local remedies must depend upon the condition of the conjunctiva. Daily applications, either of astringents or caustics, as the case may indicate, will do much to mitigate the results which would supervene were the disease left to itself.

Phlyctenular conjunctivitis (also called pustular, scrofulous, strumous, and herpetic conjunctivitis) is characterised by the presence of one or more small vesicles attacking the sclerotic portion of the conjunctiva (see fig. 7, opposite p. 74). Each is at first small, conical, and well defined; it seldom measures more than from 1 to 2 mm. across the base. Its contents are at first clear and transparent, but soon become yellowish, indicating the formation of pus. Sometimes it becomes solid in texture, forming a somewhat hard prominence. The surrounding conjunctiva is swollen and injected, and there is frequently a triangular leash of enlarged blood-vessels, having its apex at the phlyctenula and its base towards either the inner or the outer canthus. The number of these phlyctenulæ varies from one to five or six. One or two will appear by preference at the sclero-corneal junction, although they may be entirely corneal, or entirely in the sclerotic portion of the conjunctiva, or they may occupy any of these positions simultaneously; when, however, more than two occur, they generally appear in successive crops. So long as the corneal portion of the conjunctiva is not simultaneously affected, there is little or no inconvenience beyond a pricking sensation, increased secretion of mucus, and more frequent blinking than normal. As soon, however, as the cornea is attacked (phlyctenular keratitis), even though it be near the periphery, there is increased lachrymation, and photophobia may be so great as to cause blepharospasm (p. 79). In some cases these pustules are accompanied by a more extended inflammation of the conjunctiva, presenting the combined symptoms of muco-purulent and phlyctenular conjunctivitis.

This affection is common in children up to the age of ten or twelve years, but may occur at any period of life. It is frequently accompanied by impetigo of the face and head. The subjects are generally anæmic, badly nourished, and live in crowded and ill-ventilated dwellings.

Prognosis and treatment.—So long as the corneal conjunctiva is unaffected, the phlyctenules break down after a few days, leaving a superficial ulcer, which rapidly heals, and the conjunctival redness disappears. The disease, however, shows a great tendency to recurrence.

The process of healing is assisted by the use of mild astringents, such as the yellow oxide of mercury ointment (F. 24), the solution of boracic acid (F. 14), and other simple astringents.

Constitutional treatment is also important. A wholesome diet and good hygienic conditions should be prescribed; also plentiful exercise in the open air, and the internal administration of tonic medicines—Parrish's food, cod liver oil, decoction or tincture of cinchona, &c.; also sulphide of calcium in $\frac{1}{10}$ gr. doses every few hours.

Membranous or diphtheritic conjunctivitis is comparatively rare in this country; nevertheless a good number of cases have been recorded, and in Germany, where the graver forms of the affection appear to be of more frequent occurrence than in Great Britain and France, the subject has received considerable attention.

A. Graefe[1] endeavoured to arrange these cases into two classes:

(*a*) *The diphtheritic*, in which in the first stage there is brawny swelling of the lids, a pale bloodless condition of the conjunctiva, a very adherent whitish membrane, and a thin, scanty discharge.

(*b*) *The pseudo-membranous*, or *croupous*, in which there is a slightly adherent pellicle of exudation, a succulent conjunctiva, which bleeds easily when touched, and more or less muco-purulent or purulent discharge. He admitted, however, that cases intermediate between these two classes do sometimes occur.

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[1] A. von Graefe, *Arch. f. Oph.* I., i. 168, 1854.

De Wecker[1] also draws a line of demarcation between what he terms croupal and diphtheritic conjunctivitis.

Professor Tweedy[2] also maintains the classical distinction between membranous and diphtheritic affections.

I fully acknowledge the extreme severity of the majority of those cases which are directly traceable to diphtheria; yet some of these are of a milder type and less pernicious in their results than others of the so-called membranous conjunctivitis, in which, beyond the condition of the conjunctiva, no symptom of diphtheria can be found. I have made microscopic examinations of both the diphtheritic and the membranous forms of conjunctivitis.[3] In each the conjunctiva is thickened by infiltration, consisting chiefly of leucocytes; towards the surface these are so thick and numerous that nothing else is visible. Deeper down the blood-vessels are completely occluded by similar cells, no red blood corpuscles are visible; even in the deepest parts these leucocytes are very numerous, occupying the interstices between the connective tissue. In some of the chronic cases the white, caseous-looking substance, which can be separated with forceps, presents a semi-crystalline appearance, simulating cholesterine. This condition of an opaque, whitish, adherent membrane, with more or less solid infiltration of the ocular or palpebral conjunctiva, may occur in conjunction with throat diphtheria; it may be the result of inoculation with diphtheritic discharge from another person; it may occur as one of the sequelæ of an acute illness, or during the course of an attack of scarlet fever; or it may supervene in a case of simple muco-purulent or purulent conjunctivitis, especially when strong caustics are too freely applied. For these reasons I am inclined to think with Mr. Nettleship[4] that we should abandon the distinction between diphtheritic and membranous conjunctivitis.

There are many degrees of severity in this affection, varying from a simple patch of a few millimetres diameter of slow increase, and unattended by constitutional disturbance, to that condition in which the whole of the palpebral and ocular conjunctiva is involved, causing rapid destruction of the cornea, and attended by considerable pyrexia, with severe pain in the eyes, the temples, and the head.

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[1] *Thérapeutique Oculaire.*

[2] *Lancet*, 1880 (vol. i.), pp. 125, 282.

[3] See *Ophthal. Soc. Trans.*, vol. iii. p. 1.

[4] *St. Thomas's Hospital Reports*, vol. x. 1880.

Treatment.—In the severe and acute forms active measures must be taken to reduce the local inflammation, to prevent the destruction of the cornea by pressure of the swollen conjunctiva, and to support the constitution of the patient. Unfortunately, all the means we possess are too frequently futile in preventing partial or complete sloughing of the cornea. The application of caustics is generally regarded as increasing the danger. Jacobson recommends the use of iced compresses continuously applied; the effect, however, should be watched, and if the symptoms do not improve, or should appear to be aggravated, they must be substituted by hot fomentations, which may with advantage contain a small percentage of carbolic or salicylic acid. A few leeches may be applied to the temple, or to the lids, if the patient can afford the loss of blood. Moderate scarification of the mucous surfaces may also be of great benefit, and even the division of the outer canthus may be effective in relieving the globe from the bad results of compression, and in favouring the local applications. With regard to constitutional treatment, some surgeons recommend the administration of mercury till slight salivation is produced. Others prefer a tonic and supporting plan of treatment by the copious use of nutrient foods, iron, quinine, ammonia, bark, &c.

In the milder and chronic forms the exudation should be, as far as possible, peeled off daily; the surface should then be treated with some astringent, such as the lapis divinus, once daily, or with lotion of quinine (2 per cent.), or of salicylic acid at frequent intervals.

Pterygium is a thickened condition of a part of the ocular conjunctiva. It usually commences opposite to the aperture formed by the opened eyelids, and is more common on the nasal than on the temporal side of the cornea, although it may occupy both these positions in the same eye, or even in both eyes, at the same time. Each patch appears in the form of a triangle, of which the apex is directed towards, or encroaches upon, the cornea, the sides being free and formed by a double fold of the mucous membrane, under which a probe can be easily passed. Its colour is generally so similar to that of the conjunctiva that it usually passes unnoticed until it attacks the cornea (see fig. 2, opposite p. 74); sometimes, however, it becomes vascular in structure, and then has a bright red colour. It varies greatly in thickness and in the rapidity of its growth. In some cases it continues for many years without apparent increase; in others, especially those of the vascular kind, the increase may be rapid. In the majority of cases it causes but little or no inconvenience; but when the thickening is great, the conjunctiva is liable to inflammatory attacks. So long as the growth does not extend to the front of the pupillary aperture, the vision is unaffected; but after it has reached this region, the vision decreases in proportion to the extent of the pterygium. Pterygium is thought to be caused by persistent exposure of the conjunctiva to irritating substances, and to commence as a small abrasion or ulcer opposite the sclero-corneal junction. It is most common in those who have travelled or spent some years in hot dusty countries, and in stonemasons and others who are exposed to irritating substances.

Treatment.—When the cornea is only slightly or not at all involved, and when the increase is evidently slow—that is, where increase is imperceptible during six or twelve months' observation—no treatment is called for.

Where increase is evident, and the pterygium has commenced its march upon the cornea, its removal by operation should be at once resorted to. This can be effected by (1) transplantation, (2) excision, or (3) ligation.

1. *Transplantation* (Desmarre's operation).—The lids being separated by a speculum, the pterygium is seized with forceps and dissected completely away from the cornea and the conjunctiva as far as its base. The lower flap of the incision formed in the ocular conjunctiva by the removal of the pterygium is now enlarged by an incision of several millimetres in length, made parallel to the lower margin of the cornea. The conjunctiva is then dissected away from the globe to an extent sufficient to receive the pterygium beneath it. The pterygium

is then twisted under this flap of conjunctiva and fastened in its new position by one or two fine silk sutures. Finally, the cut edges of the conjunctiva are brought into apposition by similar sutures.

The dissection can be made with curved scissors or a Beer's cataract knife. An excellent little knife is used for this purpose by Mr. Anderson Critchett. It is rounded at its extremity, and the cutting edge is continued a short way up the back of the blade. It is made by Weiss. This method gives very satisfactory results; the transplanted conjunctiva soon becomes shrunken and imperceptible.

2. *Excision* is performed in a manner similar to the first stage of transplantation, the mass being cut away at its base by two incisions meeting at the commissure. The edges of the wound are brought together by fine silk sutures.

3. *Ligation* is performed by transfixing the base of the pterygium by several silk ligatures and tying them tightly in such a manner as to involve the whole of the base of the growth, which soon sloughs, and can be removed with forceps.

Pinguecula is a small whitish or yellowish white tumour of from 1 mm. to 4 mm. diameter, situated in the ocular conjunctiva close to the cornea, and opposite the palpebral fissure. It more commonly occurs on the temporal than on the nasal side of the cornea, but it frequently comes on both sides and in both eyes. It involves the whole thickness of the conjunctiva, with which it moves when the latter is displaced. It is more common after middle age than before that period, also in persons who are exposed by their occupation to irritating vapours and substances. Microscopically, pinguecula consists chiefly of condensed cellular tissue; the epithelial layer of the conjunctiva is thickened, and the blood-vessels are obliterated. It causes no trouble or inconvenience; after attaining a certain magnitude it remains stationary. As a rule no treatment is required, but no harm would be done by its removal.

Amyloid degeneration of the conjunctiva.—This is a rare affection, in which there is a soft gelatinous-looking hypertrophy of the conjunctiva, unattended by inflammation or pain. It appears first to attack the sclerotic portion of the conjunctiva, and thence to spread to that of the palpebræ and the cornea. According to Leber, amyloid degeneration is a purely local malady; it may come on as a primary affection of the conjunctiva, or it may be consecutive to chronic granular conjunctivitis. The process consists in the development of amyloid corpuscles or trabeculæ, which are situated in a clear, liquid matrix, and are inclosed in a special membrane, containing numerous nuclei. The corpuscles and trabeculæ give a decided amyloid reaction when treated with iodine and sulphuric acid.

Xerosis is a very uncommon form of disease, which is characterised by a peculiar dryness of the conjunctiva, giving it a shrivelled, skin-like character, in consequence of atrophy of its tissue, and obliteration of its secretory elements. Its treatment is very unsatisfactory. The application of glycerine and bandaging is advised as a palliative. M. Ollier, of Lyons, has found benefit from keeping the eyelids closed for many months. In order to effect this he pares the edges of the lids, and brings them together by sutures, so as to produce symblepharon.

CHAPTER IV.

DISEASES OF THE CORNEA.

ANATOMY — INFLAMMATION — PHLYCTENULAR KERATITIS — INTERSTITIAL KERATITIS—VASCULAR KERATITIS—PUNCTATE KERATITIS—ULCERATIVE AND SUPPURATIVE KERATITIS — LEUCOMA — STAPHYLOMA.

Anatomy and physiology.—The cornea is nearly circular in shape, and is quite transparent; its arc extends to about one-sixth of the circumference of the globe. It has a smaller radius of curvature than that of the sclerotic, and so projects forwards beyond the general surface of curvature of that membrane.

In the cornea (fig. 1, on the opposite page), we find from before backwards the anterior epithelium, Bowman's membrane, the substantia propria, the posterior elastic lamina, or Descemet's membrane, and the endothelium.

The anterior epithelium is of the stratified pavement variety, arranged in several layers, the deepest of which is composed of columnar cells, each with an oval nucleus; then follow two or three layers of polyhedral cells, each with a spherical nucleus; lastly, there are two or three layers of flattened cells, each with a discoid nucleus. This epithelium is continuous with that of the conjunctiva, from which it differs in being thicker and more transparent (see fig. 3, on the opposite page).

Bowman's membrane is the transparent homogeneous-looking anterior part of the substantia propria. It is considered by some high authorities to be a distinct and almost structureless membrane, but recent researches show that it only differs from the rest of the lamellæ in containing fewer lacunæ and corneal corpuscles.

The substantia propria is continuous with the sclerotic; it

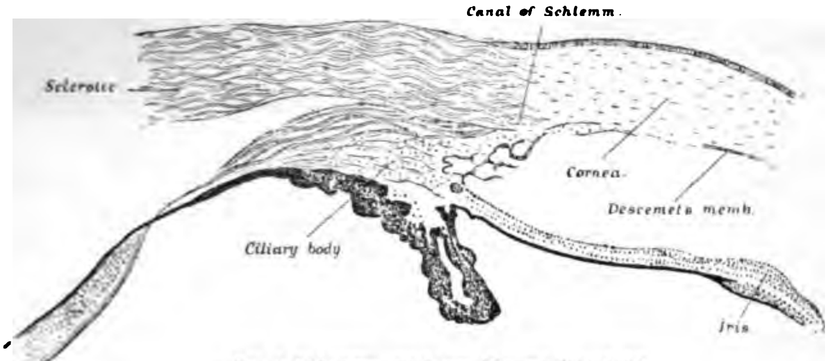

Fig. 1. Ciliary region (Normal) × ab. 40.

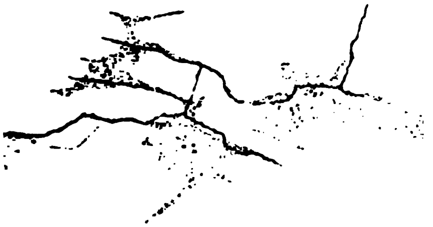

Fig 2. Corneal corpuscles & nerve fibrils. × 450
(After Klein & Noble Smith)

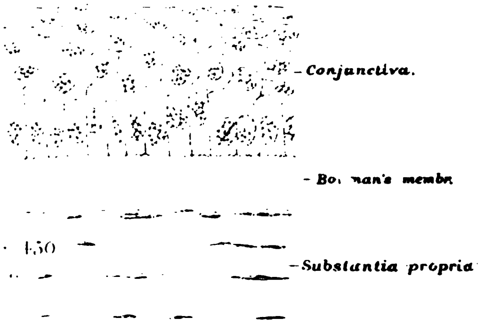

Fig 3. Anterior part of human cornea × about 350.
(After Klein & Noble Smith)

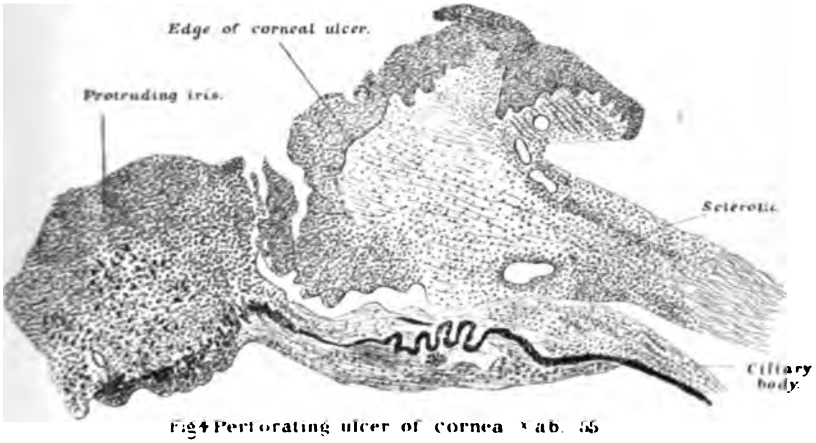

Fig 4 Perforating ulcer of cornea × ab. 55

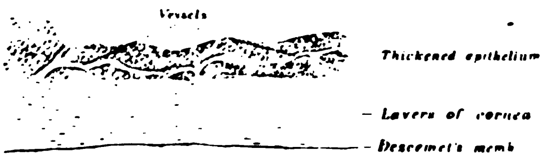

Fig 5 Pannus. × about 40.

consists of numerous lamellæ of bundles of fibrillar connective tissue. The bundles and the fibrillæ are united by a semi-fluid, albuminous, interstitial cement substance. This cement substance is arranged in distinct layers between the lamellæ, and in each of these layers are found lacunæ, and anastomosing canaliculi, constituting the lymph canalicular system of Recklinghausen. These anastomose freely with the lymphatics of the conjunctiva at the circumference of the cornea. Each lacuna contains a corneal corpuscle, from which branches extend into all the canaliculi, thus forming an anastomosis of corneal corpuscles (see fig. 2, opposite page 68). The lacunæ, however, are not completely filled by these branched corneal corpuscles, there is sufficient space left for the circulation of plasma, for the passage of migratory cells, and in some parts for the passage of nerve fibrils (Klein, Recklinghausen, Stricker, Rollett). Each corneal corpuscle contains an oval nucleus, and exhibits contractile movements under the influence of electrical, thermal, and mechanical influences. In the normal cornea only a few migratory cells can be observed in these lacunæ, but in inflammatory conditions they can be seen squeezing themselves through the finest canaliculi (Klein).

The posterior elastic lamina, or Descemet's membrane, is strongly resistent, and is composed of bundles of very fine elastic tissue. At the circumference of the cornea it becomes split up into a leash of fibres to form the ligamentum pectinatum, these pass to the iris and ciliary body, they also give attachment to some fibres of the ciliary muscle. Its posterior surface is lined by a single layer of flattened, nucleated cells. These cells are continued along the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum, and over the anterior surface of the iris.

The nerves of the cornea are derived from the ciliary nerves; they enter the fore part of the sclerotic and thence pass to the substantia propria of the cornea; they retain their dark outline for about one mm., but then become transparent, and form a plexus throughout the laminated structure. From this primary plexus, other nerves proceed to form a finer plexus just beneath the epithelial layer, and this gives off branches between the epithelial cells, to form a still more superficial network (see fig. 2, opposite page 68).

All round the periphery of the cornea is a *fringe of capillaries*; these are continuous with the vessels of the limbus conjunctivæ and extend for about 1·5 mm. into the corneal tissue.

Oblique focal illumination is a useful method of examining the cornea, the anterior chamber, the iris, the crystalline lens, and even the anterior part of the vitreous. It should be adopted as a routine practice in all cases when the presence of a foreign body or of disease in these parts is suspected. The patient should be seated in a dark room with the ophthalmoscope lamp placed about 30 cm. to 40 cm. to the temporal side and slightly in front of the plane of the patient's face. Then by using a convex lens of 14 D. or 16 D., and slightly changing the position of the lamp and lens, the light can be easily brought to a focus upon either of these structures. The part thus illuminated can at the same time be magnified by using a second lens held in the other hand (see fig. 24). This lens should be held at its own focal distance from the part to be

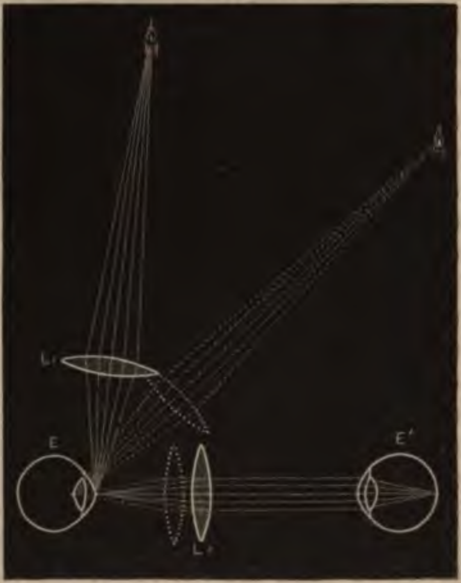

FIG. 24.—Oblique Focal Illumination.

viewed, the rays are then parallel as they reach the observer's eye, E′.

Inflammation of the cornea (keratitis, corneitis) occurs in various forms and degrees of severity. It is nearly always accompanied by more or less injection of the vessels of the circumcorneal zone. There is always some loss of transparency in the corneal tissue, although this may in some cases be so slight that it can only be seen by focal illumination. The vision is impaired in proportion to the corneal opacity. The following classification of inflammations of the cornea is convenient:

1. Interstitial or diffuse keratitis.
2. Punctate keratitis.
3. Vascular keratitis or pannus.
4. Phlyctenular keratitis.
5. Suppurative keratitis.
6. Ulcerative keratitis
    - *a.* Superficial ulcers.
    - *b.* Deep ulcers.
    - *c.* Serpiginous ulcers.

1. **Interstitial keratitis** (syphilitic, strumous, parenchymatous).

Symptoms.—In these forms of keratitis, the whole cornea undergoes a chronic inflammatory change, and evinces no tendency either to the formation of pus or to ulceration. First, there is slight congestion of the vessels in the ciliary region around the margin of the cornea, then a diffused greyish opacity at the centre; this may be so slight that it is only recognised by oblique focal illumination; soon, however, it becomes decidedly cloudy, some of the opacity being near the surfaces, and other patches deeper. This cloudiness, or ground glass appearance, gradually extends over the cornea, until the pupil and iris are more or less hidden from view. In the most severe cases the opacity assumes a yellowish tint, and no trace of the iris can then be seen, even with the oblique illumination. The degree of pain, photophobia, and congestion of the conjunctiva is variable. In some cases these symptoms are very slight from the beginning to the end of the case, in others the eyes are extremely hyper-sensitive to light, very painful, and the ocular conjunctiva much congested.

In many cases, very minute blood-vessels are formed in the layers of the cornea. These are derived from branches of the ciliary vessels; they are extremely fine and their separate branches can only be distinguished by means of a magnifying lens, when they appear in the form of a fine network of branches which are given off from a larger trunk at the periphery of the cornea. These vascular areas are not of a bright red colour, unless they are very near the surface; when deep down in the corneal tissue their colour is modified by the opacity, and they appear to be of a dull reddish colour, the 'salmon patch' of Hutchinson. They may occur in any position; and often attack the upper or lower margin of the cornea. Fig. 4, opposite page 74, represents a severe case of this disease. The whole cornea is opaque, and a salmon patch is seen over its upper third.

Complications are not unfrequent in the tissues of the neighbouring parts. The most common of these are iritis and cyclitis. Diffuse keratitis usually attacks both eyes, but as a rule one cornea is first invaded and rendered fairly opaque, before the attack in the second eye commences. The interval between the attacks in the two eyes is variable from two or three weeks to as many months. It generally occurs between the ages of 6 and 15, although it is sometimes seen as early as three, and has been known as late as thirty-five years.

The duration of this affection under proper treatment is on an average from about six months to a year; but severe cases are sometimes several years before they become stationary.

Vision is nearly always somewhat impaired after this disease. The cornea may look very transparent, and only the faintest haze may be detectable by focal illumination; but this will almost invariably be found to interfere with distinct vision.

Causes.—The majority of cases of diffuse keratitis undoubtedly result from inherited syphilis, and in a few it has been traced to acquired syphilis. Many cases, however, come under notice in which no specific history can be traced. When due to inherited syphilis, other symptoms of this affection can generally be discovered. The patient 'presents a *very peculiar physiognomy*, of which a coarse flabby skin, pits and scars on the face and forehead, cicatrices of old fissures at the angles of the mouth, a sunken bridge to the nose, and a set of permanent teeth peculiar for their smallness, bad colour, and the *vertically notched edges of the upper central incisors*, are the most striking characters.'[1]

Other symptoms of inherited specific disease can often be detected in the brothers and sisters of the patient, and the history of acquired syphilis can often be elicited from one of the parents, either directly from their own statements, or indirectly by interrogation; thus it will frequently be found that the mother of the patient suffered from numerous miscarriages, or that several children prior to the patient were either prematurely born, still-born, or died in early infancy, often with specific symptoms. With regard to this method of ascertaining the cause of diffuse keratitis otherwise than in the eyes of the patient, Mr. Nettleship says: 'I have found other personal evidence of inherited syphilis in 54 per cent. of my cases of interstitial keratitis, and evidence from the family history in 14 per cent. more; total 68 per cent.; and in most of the remaining 32 per cent. there have been strong reasons to suspect syphilis.'[2]

Treatment must be directed to the improvement and support of the general health as well as to the local condition. The subjects of this disease are generally weak, and frequently anæmic. It is important that they should be placed under the best hygienic conditions, that they should have abundance of nutritious food, and plenty of exercise in the open air. Strong alcoholic drinks should be scrupulously avoided. A prolonged course of mercury should be prescribed; any of the mercurial preparations will answer the purpose, such as pil. hydrargyri, hydrarg. cum cretâ, the perchloride, &c., or the inunction of unguentum hydrargyri in the axillæ. Whichever form is prescribed it should be continued for a long time, but its action must be carefully watched lest salivation be produced. The state of the gums and inside of the lips should be examined at each visit, and any sponginess being observed, the medicine should be stopped until these symptoms have disappeared. In addition to mercury, the internal

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[1] *Syphilitic Diseases of the Eye and Ear*, by Jonathan Hutchinson, p. 30.

[2] *Diseases of the Eye*, by E. Nettleship, 1882, p. 104.

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE.

FIG. 1.—Pannus (partial).

„ 2.—Pterygium.

„ 3.—Local Keratitis.

„ 4.—Interstitial Keratitis (Salmon patch above).

„ 5.—Punctate Keratitis.

„ 6.—Ulcer of Cornea (healing).

„ 7.—Phlyctenular Conjunctivitis.

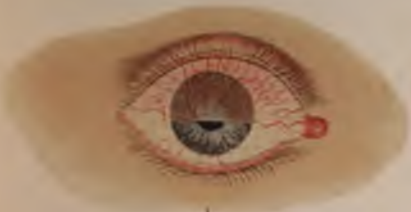
„ 8.—Plastic Iritis.

„ 9.—Severe Plastic Iritis.

„ 10.—Posterior Synechiæ (Atropine has been used).

„ 11.—Hypopyon.

„ 12.—Blood in Anterior Chamber.



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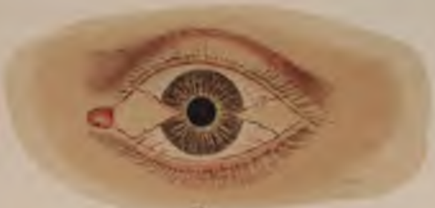

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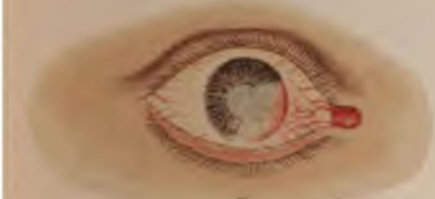

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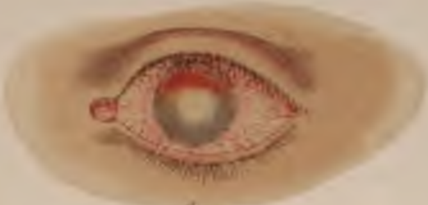

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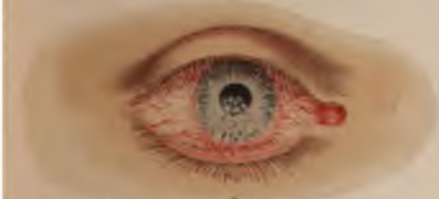

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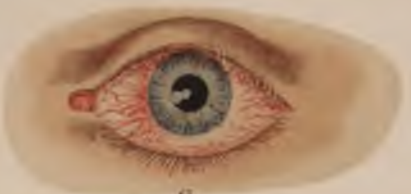

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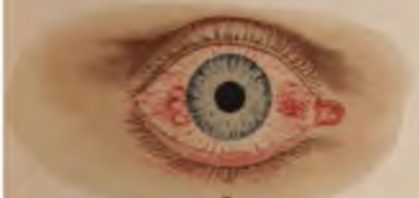

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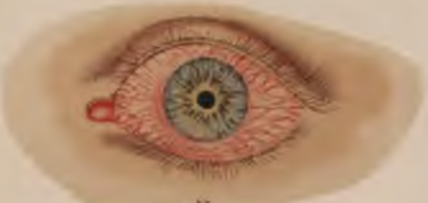

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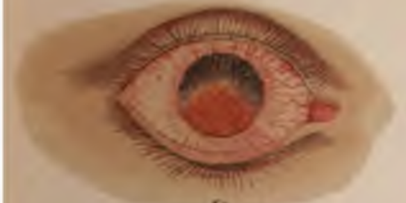

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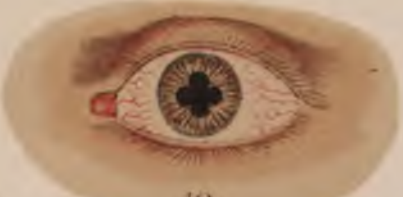

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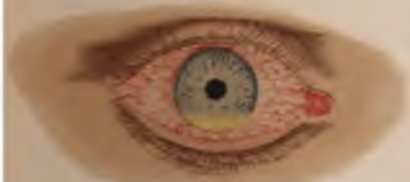

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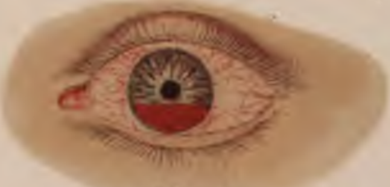

12.

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administration of cod liver oil, of the syrup of phosphates of iron, quinine, and strychnine, of the syrup of the iodide of iron, or of the perchloride of iron with quassia, is a very valuable adjunct. The eyes should be shaded from bright light and exposure to cold by means of tinted glasses; if there is photophobia, they had better be closed, and covered by small pads of cotton-wool and a bandage. A ½ per cent. solution of atropine should be systematically dropped into the palpebral aperture once or twice daily throughout the active, inflammatory stage; this not only acts as a sedative, but by causing dilatation of the pupil, prevents adhesions (synechiæ) if iritis is present. When inflammation has subsided, and there is no redness in the circumcorneal zone, nor any photophobia remaining, the use of the yellow oxide of mercury ointment (F. 24) is advisable, as it promotes absorption of the opacity; it should be put into the palpebral aperture night and morning.

2. **Punctate keratitis** is characterised by the existence of dots of opacity on the posterior surface of Descemet's membrane (see fig. 5, opposite p. 74). The term was formerly employed by some surgeons to indicate any dotted appearance in this or other parts of the cornea. The dots are variable in size and arrangement, sometimes being visible to the naked eye, at others requiring oblique focal illumination and the use of a magnifying lens. *Microscopically* they are seen to be as accumulations of nucleated cells of similar nature to those of the epithelioid layer, which is also thickened in other parts (see fig. 1, opposite p. 126). Keratitis punctata is almost invariably secondary to inflammation of some neighbouring part, as the iris, ciliary body, or choroid. It occurs in the sympathising eye in sympathetic ophthalmitis, where the dots are usually distributed irregularly over the epithelioid layer. It often appears in the course of specific serous iritis, where it usually assumes a triangular form; the apex of the triangle is in front of the pupil, and the base at the circumference of the cornea, usually below.

3. **Vascular keratitis** or **pannus** is a superficial vascularity and opacity of the cornea (fig. 1, opposite p. 74, also fig. 5, opposite p. 68). In it we find the deep portions of the epithelial layer of the cornea infiltrated with a number of nucleated cells, amongst

which very fine blood-vessels make their appearance and finally become so large as to be visible to the naked eye; these vessels are continuous with those of the limbus conjunctivæ, and when sufficiently far apart to be seen separately, present a tortuosity which distinguishes them from those met with in other forms of inflammation of the cornea. The superficial layers of the corneal tissue also become somewhat affected, being invaded by patches of opacity. The number of vessels varies with the severity of the case; sometimes they are only three or four in number, and the opacity so slight as to be hardly perceptible. In the severer forms they are so numerous as to constitute a thick fleshy-looking web, and the opacity of the sub-epithelial tissue is so great that the patient's vision is reduced to mere perception of light.

Pannus is almost invariably caused by granular conjunctivitis, and commences usually in that part of the cornea which is rubbed against by the upper lid; it is always accompanied by more or less photophobia, lachrymation, pain in the eye, swelling of the edges of the lids, and impairment of vision. It is sometimes complicated by other lesions, as ulcer of cornea, iritis, &c.

Treatment.—In all cases of pannus we have to direct our attention to the removal of two conditions, viz. the granular condition of the conjunctiva and the vascular web and opacity of the surface of the cornea. As the morbid condition of the cornea is secondary to that of the granular lids, this should be first treated by the methods recommended under the head of granular conjunctivitis (p. 59). If these measures fail to cure the pannus, the **operation of peritomy** (syndectomy) may be performed. This consists in the removal of a zone of conjunctiva and subconjunctival tissue from the immediate vicinity of the cornea. The patient being fully under the influence of ether, and the eyelids widely separated by a spring speculum, the conjunctiva is divided by small blunt-ending scissors, at a distance of 3 to 4 mm. from the entire circumference of the cornea; the strip thus formed between the incision and the cornea is then to be dissected off with the same scissors *as close as possible* to the edge of the cornea and to the surface of the sclerotic. This operation was extensively practised by the late

Mr. Critchett,[1] who found that it accelerated the cure of the granular lids as well as that of the pannus. Its beneficial results do not immediately appear; in fact, the condition sometimes seems rather aggravated during the first week following the operation; but as soon as new tissue has been deposited, and a white cicatricial line is observed around the corneal margin, there is marked improvement. When pannus has been allowed to become complete, so that a fleshy-looking vascular web has formed over the whole cornea and *no transparent portion remains*, **inoculation** of pus is sometimes performed. The process consists in simply transferring some purulent matter from the eye of an infant during the first week of an attack of ophthalmia neonatorum into the palpebral aperture of the patient. An acute attack of purulent conjunctivitis is thus established, and is sometimes followed by clearing up of the cornea. Not unfrequently, however, the process is followed by complete destruction of the eye. The contagious and destructive nature of this remedy renders it very objectionable. It should only be adopted as a last resource.

De Wecker[2] has recently introduced the artificial production of purulent conjunctivitis by means of jequirity, as a means of cure both for granular lids and for pannus. An infusion of the seeds of jequirity[3] is used for this purpose. It is prepared as follows: Take 3 grammes of the pulverised seeds, and macerate for twenty-four hours in 500 grammes of cold water, and then add 500 grammes of boiling water. Allow the infusion to cool, then filter immediately.

The patient is to bathe his eyes with this infusion three times in the day. If the resulting irritation is severe, this will be sufficient, otherwise the application must be continued on the second, and, if necessary, on the third day.

It is followed in a few hours by severe irritation of the ocular and palpebral conjunctiva. Acute inflammation follows the next day, the patient can no longer open his eyes, the lids are œdematous, and there is serous secretion, which is sufficiently copious to drop from the lids if the patient lowers his head.

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[1] *Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society*, vol. i. p. 9, 1881.

[2] *Annales d'Oculistique*, August 1882, p. 24. Also see *Ophthalmic Review*, vol. ii. p. 19.

[3] The seeds are supplied by Rigaud, Rue Vivienne, Paris.

This continues for several days, and is accompanied by pyrexia, sleeplessness, headache, and constipation. After the third day the period of suppuration sets in, and lasts about five days. The suppuration then gradually decreases, and the patient begins to feel improvement up to the fifteenth day, when he is finally free from inflammation, and cured of his granulations, and the cornea gradually begins to clear.

As the result of his first experiences of this drug, De Wecker arrived at the following conclusions:

(1) Infusion of jequirity affords a means of promptly setting up a purulent or croupous ophthalmia, the intensity of which is greater if the infusion, instead of being used merely as a lotion, is swabbed on the everted lids, and applied in the form of compresses. In the majority of cases the swollen conjunctiva becomes covered with croupous membrane like that sometimes met with in the ophthalmia of new-born children, when the secretion coagulates on contact with air.

(2) The employment of the infusion is not painful; purulent conjunctivitis is induced by it as promptly as by inoculation, and with the advantage of avoiding the use of matter borrowed from an individual about whose constitution one can never be quite certain.

(3) By moderating the use of the jequirity, the degree of suppuration required may be regulated far more accurately than is possible in inoculation. In the latter proceeding neither the quantity nor the quality of the matter affords any control, whereas with jequirity, if the action is insufficient, it may readily be augmented by a fresh and more energetic application.

This method has since been tried by other ophthalmic surgeons, but the hope that it might prove a real and efficient remedy for trachoma and pannus has not as yet been fully realised.

M. Deneffe, of Ghent,[1] has tried it in his practice. He states that in some cases the inflammation was extremely violent by the third day, resembling a true purulent conjunctivitis; in others it was much less intense, and in some it did not occur at all. Therapeutically considered, the inflammation produced by jequirity gave no results. The granulations were not removed and the pannus was not influenced in any way. Not one of his patients found benefit.

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[1] See *Ophthalmic Review*, vol. ii. p. 174.

Dr. Brailey records a favourable experience of this method in his practice at Guy's Hospital.[1] Three cases of trachoma, which had resisted other treatment, were considerably improved by the jequirity infusion. He considers it to be a drug of considerable value. It does not appear to affect the cornea injuriously, and in this respect must be admitted to have a great advantage over inoculation with pus.

4. **Phlyctenular keratitis** (pustular keratitis, vesicular keratitis, herpes corneæ) is characterised by the appearance of one or more small pustules on the surface of the cornea. They are similar to those occurring in phlyctenular conjunctivitis (p. 61), in fact both cornea and conjunctiva are frequently attacked together. Each consists of an aggregation of leucocytes just beneath the epithelial layer. They may occur simultaneously or in successive crops. They may attack any part of the cornea, but are usually found near the sclero-corneal junction. At the end of three or four days they usually rupture, and form a superficial ulcer.

There is always photophobia, which is sometimes so great as to cause acute blepharospasm. The ocular conjunctiva is usually injected, and often contains similar pustules. As the ulcer heals, a leash of vessels is often developed between it and the margin of the cornea. This disappears when the ulcer has quite healed.

This affection is common amongst strumous children, and occurs more frequently amongst the poor and ill-fed than amongst the well-to-do.

Treatment.—The local treatment consists in shading the eyes from light, and in applying slightly astringent and antiseptic remedies to the affected part. The drops of boracic acid (F. 14) and the oxide of mercury ointment (F. 24) are beneficial, and when there is much pain these can be combined with atropine drops or ointment of similar strength. The general health must be improved.

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[1] *Brit. Med. Journal*, May 19, 1883, p. 954.

5. **Suppurative keratitis** may be diffuse or circumscribed. In the **diffuse form** the cornea first loses its brilliancy, then assumes a greyish-white appearance, which soon becomes of a yellowish tint, indicating the formation of pus between the lamellæ. This process of infiltration and suppuration takes place very rapidly, a few days sufficing for the whole of the cornea to become involved. The epithelium disappears, the more superficial lamellæ become separated from the deeper by a layer of pus, and are detached, causing so much loss of substance that the deeper parts, unable to resist the intraocular pressure, are pushed forwards, and ruptured, thus forming an extensive perforation. In the more favourable cases of diffuse keratitis, there may be no perforation, but there is always considerable bulging forwards (staphyloma) of the anterior part of the globe, and so much corneal opacity that vision is greatly interfered with.

This affection may come on as a complication, or extension, of some other local affection; thus it is frequently found during the course of purulent conjunctivitis; it not unfrequently appears with traumatic iritis and irido-cyclitis after the extraction of cataract.

In the **circumscribed form** of keratitis, some portion of the cornea becomes dull in appearance, an opaque whitish patch appears, and is surrounded by a greyish halo; the central part of the patch then assumes a yellowish tint, indicating the existence of **abscess of the cornea.** When the abscess is near the surface, the superficial layers of the cornea break down and form a superficial ulcer. When it is deeply situated the pointing takes place inwards, and the pus passes into the anterior chamber. It occasionally happens that an abscess opens both outwards and inwards, and so forms a fistulous opening into the anterior chamber. The contents of the localised suppurations are more tenacious in character than pus from other tissues; this is particularly evident after rupture, or after incision by the surgeon, when the contained matter often comes away *en masse*, rather than in the liquid form. Microscopically it consists of pus cells, and broken-down connective tissue of the cornea.

The laminæ, between which the pus is situated, are sometimes so separated that the latter gravitates towards the inferior part, and so presents a fancied resemblance to the lunule at the base of the finger nail; hence the condition has been termed **onyx.** When puro-lymph is present in the anterior chamber it gravitates towards the lower part, and the condition is then termed **hypopyon**; this is a frequent complication of deep ulcers of the cornea, especially in old people. The quantity of pus in the anterior chamber is very variable, sometimes only a faint yellow line can be seen at the lower part of the chamber. Hypopyon can generally be distinguished from onyx by the fact that the upper level of the fluid is a horizontal line, while in onyx the limit is usually irregular. If the pus in hypopyon is sufficiently fluid to shift its position with movements of the head, this fact at once establishes the diagnosis (see fig. 11, opposite p. 74, also fig. 25). In onyx focal illumination will generally render it evident that the pus is in the substance of the cornea. The two conditions may, however, coexist.

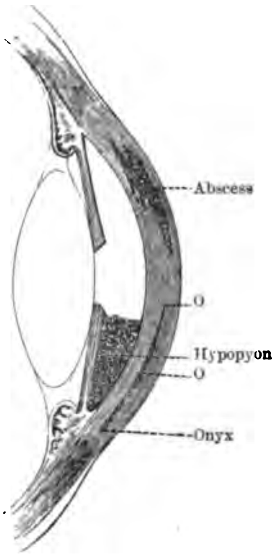

FIG. 25. — Vertical Section through Anterior part of Globe (diagrammatic).

Suppurative keratitis may come on spontaneously in persons of scrofulous diathesis. It may occur at any age, and is common in old people where the cornea has received some injury, as from a foreign body under the eyelid, or an abrasion near the centre.

Treatment.—In the early stage the eyelids should be well fomented with warm water or warm decoction of poppy heads every few hours, and a ½ per cent. solution of atropine dropped into the palpebral aperture at frequent intervals. The eyes after each bathing should be covered by a compress of lint dipped in hot water, and covered over with cotton-wool or a light bandage. Some surgeons prefer that the fomentation should be rendered antiseptic by the presence of ½ per cent. of carbolic or salicylic acid. When the abscess is established, it may be treated either by puncture, or by the method of Saemisch (see p. 88). When hypopyon exists, paracentesis of the anterior chamber should be performed. Small collections of puro-lymph are, however, frequently absorbed from the anterior chamber. The general health of the patient should be sustained by good food, fresh air, ammonia and bark, or quinine.

6. **Ulcers of the cornea** constitute an important part of ophthalmic practice. They are always preceded by more or less infiltration and greyish opacity; first the superficial and then the deeper laminæ break down at the centre of the part thus affected, causing actual loss of corneal tissue. In all cases of ulcer there is more or less pain, intolerance of light, and injection of the circumcorneal zone of vessels.

Ulcers may be classified into three chief groups: *a*. **Superficial.** *b*. **Deep.** *c*. **Serpiginous.**

a. **Superficial ulcers** are usually circumscribed, and often so transparent that they may escape attention unless oblique focal illumination is used; by this method of examination, however, they can always be detected, and are usually found to have margins more or less infiltrated and opalescent. They are attended by severe photophobia, lachrymation, and neuralgic pains in and around the eye. When situated near the centre of the cornea vision is much interfered with, when peripheral it is but slightly affected.

They are frequently of traumatic origin, being caused by a slight scratch or blow, or by the presence of a foreign body. They sometimes come on during the course of an attack of conjunctivitis, more especially in the phlyctenular form. As a rule early and proper treatment will cause healing of the ulcer without leaving any permanent opacity.

b. **Deep ulcers** are frequently caused by injury, such as an abrasion, a scratch, or a contused wound of the cornea; they occasionally follow the rupture of a pustule, as in phlyctenular keratitis. They are not unfrequent complications during an attack of smallpox, or after measles. They constitute, as we have seen, a serious feature in severe inflammation of the conjunctiva, be it granular, purulent, or diphtheritic. Occasionally we find ulceration of the cornea supervening in cases of paralysis of the fifth nerve, which supplies the trophic and sensory fibres to the eyeball; in such cases the inflammatory symptoms are very slight.

Deep ulcers commence by first attacking the epithelium and then spreading both in extent and depth to the proper tissue of the cornea, destroying both the corneal corpuscles and the intercellular substance. Their edges are copiously infiltrated with leucocytes and present a greyish white colour, which gradually shades off into clear corneal substance. When the process has ceased to be progressive, the edges of the ulcer become less abrupt, and its floor is gradually filled by regular layers of cells, which become organised; the epithelium then begins to be restored, and the surrounding corneal tissue regains its transparency. Ulcers vary much in size and may attack any part of the cornea. They are always attended by photophobia, lachrymation, and pain in and around the eye; the degree of severity of these symptoms is very variable. In deep ulcers there is always danger of perforation. The posterior elastic lamina may be ruptured by intraocular pressure; or it may be pushed forwards, so as to protrude in the form of a small transparent bladder. This protrusion may contain more or less of the pupillary margin of the iris, especially if rupture takes place; the crystalline lens and its capsule may also be pushed forwards against the back of the corneal fistula thus established. Iritis follows, and plastic exudation is thrown out, by which the iris becomes adherent to the cicatrix in the cornea (anterior synechia, see fig. 2, opposite page 126), and the inflammatory process and exudation may extend to the capsule of the lens, producing a permanent white opacity (pyramidal cataract) such as we so frequently see after ulceration in ophthalmia neonatorum.

When the deep ulceration has been extensive, we may find forward bulging of part or whole of the altered cornea to a variable extent (anterior staphyloma) (see fig. 26). When perforation is large, almost the whole of the iris may be protruded, and in some severe cases even the crystalline lens, and the vitreous humour may be pushed forwards and evacuated. In a few cases of deep ulcer the loss of substance of the cornea is replaced by new transparent tissue. In the majority, however, the position of the ulcer is marked by a persistent patch of opacity; the density of this presents every shade of variety; when very slight, so as to be perceptible only on close examination, it is usually called a *nebula*; when distinctly opalescent, a *leucoma*.

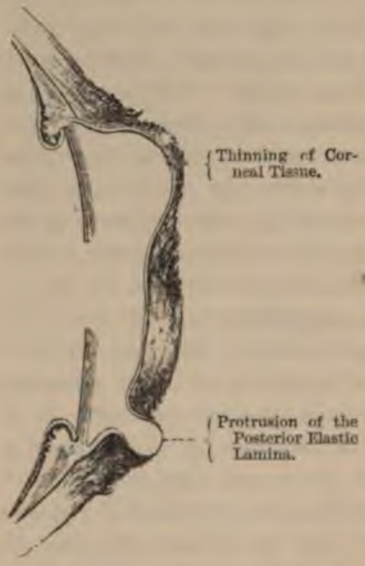
Thinning of Corneal Tissue.
Protrusion of the Posterior Elastic Lamina.

FIG. 26.—Staphyloma of Cornea (after Stellwag von Carion).

If the patch of opacity thus established happens to be opposite the aperture of the pupil, there is necessarily much interference with vision; if situated nearer the periphery, this is less marked, but in either case it often happens that after cicatrisation the cornea is not restored to its normal thickness, but has a facetted appearance, or even a depression corresponding to the position of the ulcer. This irregularity of surface is in itself sufficient to cause serious diminution of vision. (*See* Irregular Astigmatism.)

c. **Serpiginous ulcer** generally occurs in elderly or prematurely old people. They are most common amongst those whose occupation exposes them to slight wounds of the cornea. A strongly predisposing and aggravating cause undoubtedly exists in obstruction of the nasal duct.

This kind of ulcer may commence in any part of the cornea. It is usually crescentic in form, and presents the appearance of a deep groove having almost perpendicular walls. The edges of the ulcer are swollen and infiltrated, they have a greyish yellow tint and a punched-out appearance. The surrounding cornea is frequently more or less infiltrated. The part first attacked may become filled up by new tissue, whilst the ulceration creeps along the cornea.

A serpiginous ulcer may be comparatively chronic, but is generally attended with considerable pain, photophobia, and lachrymation. Unless its progress can be checked by treatment it usually involves a large extent of the cornea, which, by thus having its nutrition cut off, may partly or entirely slough. Hypopyon, iritis, and even panophthalmitis may also be set up by severe ulcer of this kind.

The treatment of ulcers of the cornea.—The chief objects to be aimed at in treatment are:

1. To soothe local pain.
2. To protect the ulcer from friction against the eyelids, and from exposure to light.
3. To diminish intraocular tension.
4. To stimulate the ulcer.
5. To produce counter-irritation.
6. To improve the general health.

1. *Local pain* can be soothed by the use of atropine drops every few hours (F. 19 and 20). The sedative action of atropine will be increased by hot fomentations and by a compress of lint dipped into hot water containing some tincture of opium or morphia; the lint should be covered over with a large pad of dry cotton-wool so as to keep it warm.

Belladonna fomentations and compresses (F. 23) are also useful in allaying pain, but the odour is very offensive, and the skin of the face is stained by this. Subcutaneous injection of morphia over the temporal region gives temporary relief.

Where there is acute and prolonged blepharospasm, as not unfrequently happens in ulcers of the cornea, great relief is sometimes given by paracentesis of the anterior chamber. It is also often relieved by treating the skin over the eyebrows and lower frontal regions by the solid nitrate of silver stick. The application should be repeated every second day. Both of these remedies may be combined.

2. *Friction of the lids* against the ulcer by constant winking and exposure to light can be diminished by wearing a large black or green shade over both eyes. In the majority of ulcers, however, especially when only one eye is affected, it is

better to close the eyelids by means of a light compress of lint. No friction can then take place, and the irritation from the action of light is more effectually prevented.

3. *Diminution of intraocular tension* is often indicated. In deep ulcers, where there is danger of perforation or protrusion of Descemet's membrane, this is very desirable. The intraocular tension may be reduced in several ways.

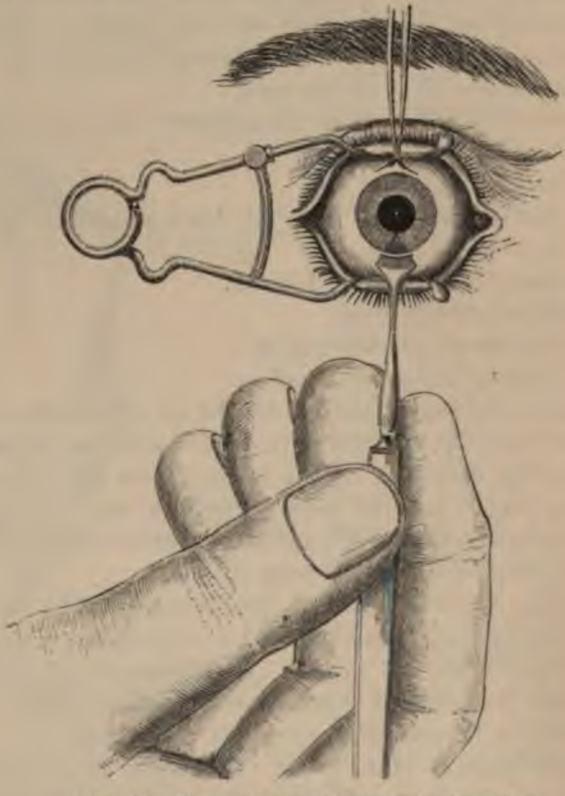

FIG. 27.—Paracentesis of the Anterior Chamber.

(i) *The use of eserine drops* (F. 31) every few hours has the combined effect of relieving the tension and stimulating the ulcerated surface. In hypopyon ulcers occurring in old people, where there is no iritis, this remedy often acts like a charm.

(ii) *Paracentesis of the anterior chamber* is very beneficial when deep or serpiginous ulcer is accompanied by hypopyon. It facilitates the escape of the pus, reduces the intraocular tension, and is often followed by marked relief from the intense pain which is frequently experienced.

The operation is performed as follows: The patient being anæsthetised in the horizontal posture, and the eyelids separated by a speculum, the eye is fixed by means of fixation forceps in the manner shown in fig. 27. A triangular keratome is then introduced at the lower part of the sclero-corneal junction. Moderately firm pressure is first made in the direction of the *centre* of the globe, that is, at right angles to its surface. As soon as the point of the instrument is seen just within the periphery of the anterior chamber, its direction is immediately changed, so that the blade passes in a plane parallel to and just in front of the iris; it is continued in this direction until the external wound is about 3 mm. or 4 mm. in length. The keratome is then gradually withdrawn, its blade being kept nearer to the back of the cornea than before.

In performing this operation attention should be paid to the following points: (1) If the incision is made obliquely, and not at right angles to the surface, there is danger of passing the blade of the instrument between the lamellæ of the cornea instead of directly into the anterior chamber. (2) The direction of the instrument must be changed as soon as the point has entered the anterior chamber, otherwise there is danger of wounding the iris and the crystalline lens. (3) During the withdrawal of the keratome, its blade should be still more approximated to the cornea, as, with the escape of the aqueous, the lens and iris frequently bulge forwards. (4) Should the iris protrude through the wound it must, if possible, be returned by means of a blunt

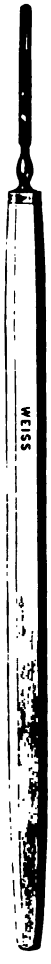

Fig. 28.
Blunt Spatula.

spatula (fig. 28), or, if this cannot be accomplished, the hernia must be seized with the iris forceps and cut off as in the operation for iridectomy.

In the serpiginous forms of ulcer, which are generally attended by more or less purulent infiltration, and in localised abscess of the cornea the method of Saemisch is preferable to the ordinary paracentesis. **Saemisch's operation** consists in cutting across the whole width of the ulcer. The patient is anæsthetised in the horizontal posture, the eyelids are separated by a spring speculum, and the globe is held steady. A Graefe's linear cataract knife is passed through the non-ulcerated tissue of the cornea about 1 mm. from the ulcer, it is then passed across the anterior chamber behind the ulcer, and is brought out by a counter puncture in the healthy tissue about 1 mm. on the opposite side. The blade is now made to cut its way out through the affected part so as to favour the escape of purulent matter from between the infiltrated laminæ. After the operation a light compress is applied, and the parts cleansed from time to time with warm water, or with a ½ per cent. solution of salicylic acid. After the lapse of twenty-four hours the wound must be reopened by means of a blunt probe (fig. 28), so as to favour the escape of aqueous humour and the infiltrating pus. The wound should be reopened in this manner daily until suppuration appears to be diminishing, when it may be allowed to heal. This operation is particularly beneficial in many chronic painful ulcers. It produces two important effects, viz. the reduction of intraocular tension, and the stimulation of the edges of the ulcer.

Scraping the edges of a chronic ulcer, with or without paracentesis, is now practised with good results. It can be effected by means of a very small lupus scoop.

4. *Stimulation of the ulcer* is frequently indicated. This is particularly the case when it has become indolent and chronic, and when there is but little congestion of the ciliary region, although there may be some vascularity of the cornea at the edge of the ulcer. One of the best stimulants and absorbents for this purpose is the yellow oxide of mercury; it may be applied in the form of ointment (F. 24), a few grains being placed inside the palpebral aperture twice daily. This

sometimes causes considerable pain and congestion, in which case its strength should be diminished by one-half, and it may be well to combine a little atropine with this. If the irritation should still continue, or become increased, the ointment must be left off.

Solid mitigated nitrate of silver (F. 4) or a 2 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver is a useful application in ulcers of long standing, especially if they are accompanied by conjunctivitis. It should be applied once in twenty-four to forty-eight hours, but its action requires to be watched for fear of aggravating the disease.

Calomel dusted into the palpebral aperture is often beneficial in these chronic ulcers; this practice, however, sometimes causes intense pain, and I prefer the use of the yellow oxide of mercury ointment.

Eserine in ½ per cent. solution applied several times daily is also an excellent stimulant to the ulcerated corneal tissue, apart from its physiological effect of reducing the tension of the globe. Even when there is much congestion and severe pain the use of eserine in conjunction with warm fomentations has been found beneficial in ulcerative keratitis. The patient is directed to foment the eye for fifteen or twenty minutes three or four times a day, or oftener. The fomentation should be used as hot as can be borne, and may consist of simple hot water, decoction of poppy heads, or camomiles. A solution of eserine ¼ to ½ per cent. should be dropped into the eye three or four times a day after the fomentations have been used. A large pad of cotton-wool thoroughly warmed before a fire, or by holding it against a can of hot water, should be laid upon the closed eyelids, and secured by a bandage. This should be replaced by a freshly warmed one as often as may be necessary for the patient's comfort.

5. *Counter-irritation* is an old and well-known assistant in the cure of chronic forms of ulcer. If the foregoing remedies have failed to produce the desired effect, they will be more likely to succeed in conjunction with a seton. This should consist of a ligature of stout silk passed beneath the skin for a distance of about 2 cm. It should be introduced just below the hair at the nape of the neck, or in the temporal region,

and retained for many weeks if necessary, not being removed until at least two weeks after the cure of the ulcer. A blister to the temporal region or behind the ears, although useful, is less effectual than the seton.

6. *Improvement of the general health* is also a cardinal point in the treatment of all ulcers of the cornea. The patient should be placed under the best possible hygienic conditions. Good food, plentiful exercise in the open air, and the internal use of tonic medicines, such as iron, quinine, ammonia and bark, or cod liver oil, as the nature of the case may indicate.

In the case of ulcer from nerve-lesion, the eye should be closed by means of a light compress and bandage. A little atropine should be used daily to prevent iritic adhesions, while the affection of the nerve is treated by the primary galvanic current, iodide of potassium, and other remedies.

The use of applications containing the salts of lead is particularly to be avoided in all corneal ulcerations, inasmuch as a permanent opacity may be formed from the deposit of an insoluble carbonate of the metal.

Opacities of the cornea.—These are chiefly due to ulceration, but may result from other causes, as local or diffuse keratitis, metallic deposits, burns, &c. When they are the result of ulceration or inflammation, much improvement may be hoped for by the continued use of such remedies as are prescribed under the respective headings; indeed no operative interference is justifiable until the opacity shows no further signs of absorption.

In cases where the opacity is slight, but the vision much impaired, we generally find that the regularity of the curvature of the cornea is interfered with, thus producing irregular astigmatism.

When the opacity is dense, and situated in front of the pupillary aperture, but not involving the whole extent of the cornea, the vision may be very much improved by the formation of an **artificial pupil.** For this purpose that part of the cornea which is clearest and most regular in curvature should be chosen. In order to ascertain the position best suited for this operation, the pupil should be dilated with atropine, and the eye examined by the oblique focal illumination (p. 70), and by the ophthalmoscope. With the former any nebulous opacities will appear as a greyish haze, and any facets or depressions will be directly seen; with the latter tilting the mirror in various directions at 20 to 40 cm. without a lens, the red fundus-reflex is interfered with by the appearance of dark patches of the cornea. The methods of operating for artificial pupil are described under the head of iridectomy (p. 160).

When the opacity of the cornea is only slight (nebula), it can still be penetrated by rays of light, but, as these are distorted, and thus interfere with the images formed by rays passing through the clear portion of the cornea, the optical effect of an artificial pupil is unsatisfactory. In such cases to make an artificial pupil alone is useless, but great improvement is often obtained by rendering the nebula completely opaque by tattooing; then, if the nebula is of large size, an artificial pupil may still further assist vision.

The probable effect of an artificial pupil may be ascertained by dilating the pupil with atropine; if the distant vision is improved by this an artificial pupil will be still more beneficial; if, on the contrary, the distant vision is confused, the operation would probably cause confusion also.

When the opacity is not central, the vision may not be much interfered with, but here the appearance of the eye might also be improved by tattooing the leucoma.

The operation for tattooing the cornea.—The patient must be anæsthetised, as the operation is tedious and painful. The eyelids are separated by a speculum, and the globe held in position by a fixation forceps. An assistant should hold a small sponge firmly against the upper and outer side of the globe to prevent any tears running over the cornea during the operation. The portion to be tattooed should be well covered with punctures or scratches, either by using a single needle or with an instrument such as is shown in fig. 29; then Indian ink in very fine powder or made into a thick paste should be thoroughly rubbed in with a blunt instrument, such as a spud or the back of a cataract scoop.

Except in the case of large leucomata, a single sitting will usually suffice.

It is sometimes advisable to tattoo also the periphery of the cornea opposite the artificial pupil, so as to prevent the entry of rays through the part, which otherwise cause some blurring of the retinal image from spherical aberration.

Owing to the impossibility of rendering an opaque cornea clear, and the absolute destruction of useful vision which its presence entails, the attention of ophthalmic surgeons has naturally turned in the direction of inquiring whether it would not be possible to transplant a transparent cornea in the place of the opaque one; so far it must be confessed that experiments on **transplantation of the cornea** have not been followed by much success. The cornea of one rabbit has been transplanted on to the eye of another both in France and Germany by Münck, Kœnigshoffer, Desmarres, and others, but always with the result that although union might take place between the new and the old tissues, yet the new cornea became shrunken and opaque. The cornea of the rabbit and other animals have also been transplanted to the human eye by Pluvier, Power, and others with similar results. The partial successes thus obtained are, however, encouraging; and Professor Wolfe, of Glasgow, states[1] that he successfully transplanted the cornea from a recently extirpated human eye into the eye of a man of forty, whose cornea had been rendered quite opaque and useless by a gunpowder explosion. Good union took place, and on the fourteenth day after the operation he could see sufficiently well to point out a ring on the finger. Before dismissal from the hospital he could 'distinguish between half a sovereign and a shilling.' After dismissal he was exposed to severe cold and privation, and the new cornea became opaque.

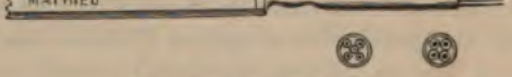

FIG. 29.—Tattooing Needle.

From his experience of this and other transplanting operations on the cornea and conjunctiva, Professor Wolfe expresses his conviction that we shall ultimately succeed in replacing an opaque by a transparent cornea. His conclusions with regard to this subject are as follows: 1. That the cornea can maintain its vitality and transparency when transplanted from one place to another, but must be taken from a freshly enucleated human eye.

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[1] *Op. cit.* p. 97.

2. All the incisions must be clean, as any tearing is likely to lead to suppuration; and the measurements of the graft must be exact.

3. The operation must be done in such a manner as not to injure the subjacent structures. To facilitate this he does not remove the entire cornea, but takes a horizontal strip from the middle, transplanting with this a strip of conjunctiva from each side.

The operation is conducted as follows:

The patient who is to receive the graft is anæsthetised, and the eyelids separated by a spring-stop speculum. A band of conjunctiva of about 5 mm. width is now dissected from the ocular conjunctiva on each side of the cornea. This done, a shouldered keratome (fig. 30) is introduced into the margin of the cornea just below the horizontal meridian and pushed across the anterior chamber in a plane anterior and parallel to the iris. A similar incision is then made on the opposite side of the cornea, and the width of the flap to be removed thus corresponds to that of the keratome used, which should be from 4 mm. to 5 mm. at its base.

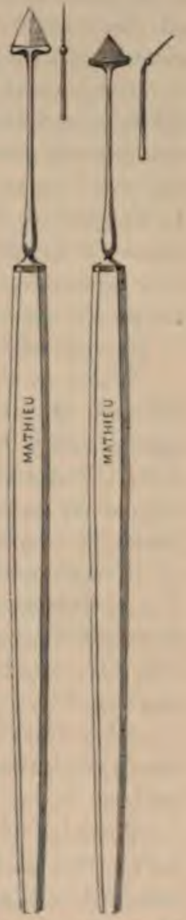

FIG. 30.—Shouldered Keratomes.

A probe-pointed linear knife is now passed in at one wound through the anterior chamber and out at the other, and is then made to cut its way out, its edge between turned forwards.

Whilst making this section Professor Wolfe supports the cornea by slight pressure with a flat silver spatula, so as to prevent tearing of the cornea or displacement of the deeper structures. The flap thus formed is now gently seized with forceps and the lower section made, either with a cataract knife or probe-pointed thin scissors. The eyelids are then gently closed until the graft is ready.

The patient about to lose an eye is at the same time anæsthetised, and two flaps of conjunctiva are dissected up as before and turned over the cornea. The eye is then enucleated in the usual manner, and a strip of cornea of similar dimensions is excised in the same way as the last. The strip of clear cornea with the two conjunctival flaps is now placed in its new position, and is secured by means of sutures placed in the corners of the flaps of conjunctiva.

Metallic and chalky deposits.

When resulting from the use of lead lotion in ulcer, or abrasion of the cornea, the carbonate of lead is seen as an opaque milky white patch, situated just beneath the epithelial layer. This and other deposits can be removed either by *scraping* or by *excision* en masse of the superficial part of the cornea in which the foreign substance is lodged.

Scraping is best performed by means of a small lupus scoop. The eyelids are separated by a speculum, and the globe held in a convenient position by fixation forceps. By gentle scraping, first the epithelium and then the deposit is gradually removed.

After the operation, a few drops of olive oil and atropine are applied, the lids closed, and a light compress of wet lint is put on.

Excision of the deposit is performed with a Beer's cataract knife. An incision is made all round the deposit into the corneal tissue, and the whole superficial part of the cornea thus marked out is carefully dissected up. The after treatment is the same as for scraping.

Anterior synechia, or adhesion of the iris to the cornea, is caused by perforation of the latter, either from disease or injury. The anterior chamber being thus emptied of its aqueous humour, the iris is pushed forward so as to come into contact with the perforation, inflammatory exudation takes place, and the iris becomes adherent, either to the posterior surface or in the depths of the cicatrix (see fig. 2, opposite p. 126).

The symptoms, and the consequences of anterior synechia, vary in proportion to the extent of the lesion. In slight cases, where there is only an adhesion of a portion of the pupillary edge of the iris to the posterior surface of the cornea, there may be but little inconvenience; the vision, however, is usually more or less defective, and, the movements of the iris being limited by the synechia, the patient is always liable to attacks of iritis, pain, &c.

When the iris is entangled in the cicatrix it shows itself as a black patch in the cornea; the vision here is always extremely deficient, and although sometimes there is no great inconvenience, except that of the loss of vision, yet these cases are liable to attacks of severe pain in and around the eye, to recurrent iritis, and even to panophthalmitis.

When the iris protrudes through a perforation, and becomes adherent in that position, there is frequently at first a leakage of the aqueous humour from the exposed surface; as contraction of the cicatrix goes on, however, this leakage lessens, and the surface of the iris becomes finally covered with a layer of lymph; the organisation of this lymph so stops the filtration as to increase the intraocular tension. (*See* Secondary Glaucoma.)

Anterior staphyloma signifies a bulging forwards of the whole or part of the cornea beyond its normal curvature. Of this there are two distinct classes, viz. the *opaque* and the *transparent* or *conical cornea.*

Opaque anterior staphyloma is almost invariably the result of perforation of the cornea, either from ulceration or from injury. As soon as perforation takes place, there is immediate escape of the aqueous humour, and, as we have just seen, the iris comes forwards in contact with the opening and may protrude through it; inflammation then takes place from exposure, and the parts become matted together by exudation, so as to fill up the orifice. The cicatrix, however, being weaker, is unable to resist intraocular tension, which is now re-established by the closure of the perforation, and bulges forwards; the extent of this deformity presents every degree of variation, from a small bladder-like protrusion to that of the whole corneal surface; the extent of the projection is sometimes so great as to prevent complete closure of the lids. The structure of the cornea becomes much altered, the epithelial layer is thickened, the substantia propria is thin, opaque, and of a grey or yellowish colour; the iris also is much altered, and often becomes atrophied. Vision is impaired in proportion to the extent and position of the corneal surface affected. This condition of bulging of the cornea and consequent dragging upon the adherent iris is liable to set up serious trouble, not only of these structures, but also of the neighbouring structures in the ciliary region, which may lead to complete disorganisation of the globe.

Treatment.—Directions have already been given under the head of 'ulcers of the cornea' for the prevention of staphyloma. When once fully formed, it is far from amenable to treatment.

In small, partial, and recent cases the compress should be continued, and the intraocular tension diminished by *paracentesis* of the anterior chamber; by repeating this every second or third day for a few times, the cicatrix often gains strength and becomes stationary. Should the tension not be sufficiently diminished by this means, or should it become increased above the normal, more benefit would be derived by excising a portion of the iris. (*See* Iridectomy.) A good large iridectomy should be performed opposite the clearest portion of the cornea. This would permanently relieve the tension, and an artificial pupil would be at the same time established.

When the staphyloma is small and circumscribed, some portion of the cornea remaining sufficiently clear for useful vision, the projection may with advantage be excised and an artificial pupil at the same time made by a small iridectomy behind the clear cornea. The excision may be performed either by seizing the projection with forceps and cutting it off with curved scissors, or by using the corneal trephine as for conical cornea. This mode of procedure often results in a sufficiently firm cicatrix.

When the whole cornea has become involved, the eye often becomes the seat of severe pain, and the increased dragging of the iris upon the ciliary region causes its disorganisation, the lens becomes opaque and perhaps dislocated. The staphyloma may become so large as to be unsightly, and to prevent proper closure of the eyelids. In this case the removal of the globe becomes necessary.

Enucleation of the eye.—*Operation.* The patient to be fully anæsthetised. The operator to stand behind the patient's head. The instruments required are speculum, fixation forceps, curved scissors, and strabismus hook, figs. 31 to 34. The eyelids to be widely separated by the speculum, and the globe held steady by seizing the conjunctiva with the forceps near the margin of the cornea.

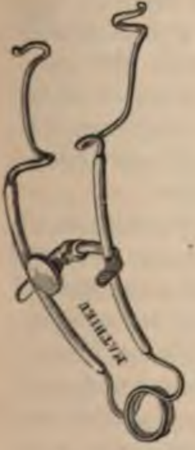

FIG. 31.
Speculum.

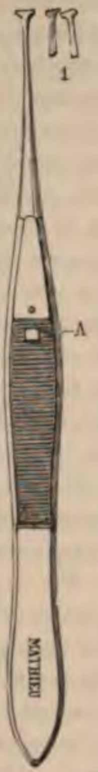

FIG. 32.
Fixation Forceps.

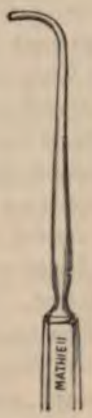

FIG. 33.
Squint Hook.

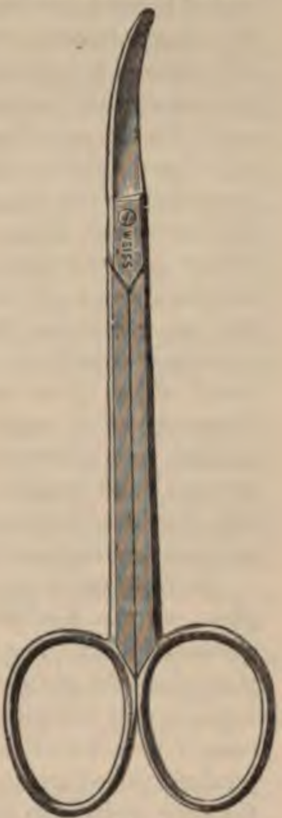

FIG. 34.
Curved Scissors.

The conjunctiva is then divided all round, and close to, the cornea, leaving only sufficient for the forceps to hold on by; the capsule of Tenon is at the same time opened by carrying the deeper blade of the scissors well beneath the conjunctiva close to the sclerotic.

The strabismus hook is now passed into Tenon's capsule and glided beneath the tendon of each muscle, which is divided with the scissors between the hook and the globe. The speculum is now allowed to open more widely by loosening the screw, and is pressed slightly backwards; the globe then starts forwards, and protrudes through the palpebral aperture. The scissors are now introduced either at the inner or outer canthus, having their concavity towards the globe. As they reach the back of the eye the blades are opened, and they are pushed in till they are felt to grip the optic nerve, which is then divided. One or two more snips are now required to sever the oblique muscles and any remaining tissues, and the globe is removed. The speculum should be taken out immediately after the removal of the globe unless it falls out, as it generally does. Hæmorrhage is easily stopped by firm pressure with small sponges and cold water. This done, a *tight compress* of two or three small sponges covered over by cotton wool is applied. This should be retained for at least six hours. It can then be removed and replaced by water dressing or dry lint.

In excising an eye, care must be taken not to puncture the globe, as the flaccidity caused by the consequent escape of vitreous renders the completion of the operation more difficult than when the globe is intact. The presence of old or recent inflammatory adhesions often renders excision difficult. In this case, if it is found that the hook cannot be passed under the tendons, the adherent tissues must be carefully dissected away from the globe with the scissors alone. When an eye is excessively large and elongated, as happens in some cases of buphthalmos and myopia, it is very difficult to divide the optic nerve without cutting the sclerotic at the posterior pole of the eye. Should this accident occur, and the back of the globe be left in the orbit, it can afterwards be removed.

Some surgeons prefer to bring the edges of the conjunctiva together by fine silk sutures after excision.

Another method of excision, which is quicker, but does not leave quite as good a stump, is to divide either the internal or external rectus first, then to pass the scissors to the back of the globe and sever the nerve, and finally to complete the operation by dividing the conjunctiva and the remaining muscles by sweeping the scissors round with one blade beneath the muscles and the other above the conjunctiva.

Artificial eyes are made of glass, and are kept in great variety as to size and colour by the best opticians. When the cicatrix of the conjunctiva and other tissues of the orbit is firm, quiet, and free from ulceration or discharge, it is ready to receive the artificial eye; this condition is usually established in from four to eight weeks. The eye should not be worn continuously. For the first few weeks it may be worn a few hours daily; after that, if no irritation is experienced, it can be worn all day, but never during the night. The artificial eyes in ordinary use require to be renewed about every six months, as they are apt to become rough, and therefore irritating to the conjunctiva.

Quite recently celluloid has been used as a substitute for glass in the manufacture of artificial eyes.[1] The eyes made of this substance are unbreakable, and are lighter than the glass eyes. The edges can be cut with an ordinary penknife to adapt the eye to any peculiarity of the stump. In appearance they exactly resemble those made of glass, and they are said to be more durable.

The insertion of an artificial eye is very easy, and is soon learned by the patient. It must first be steadily pushed beneath the upper lid, and held there whilst the lower lid is brought round its lower edge.

Its removal is still more simple. The lower lid is depressed so as to expose the lower edge of the eye, and beneath this a probe is placed, by which the eye is brought forward. It then slips out by its own weight, and should be caught in a handkerchief held for its reception.

Conical cornea, or **Transparent anterior staphyloma,** consists in a bulging forwards of the central part of the cornea beyond its normal curvature, so that it assumes the form of an obtuse transparent cone.

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[1] These eyes are manufactured by Schutze & Co., 14 South Street, Finsbury, London.

Unless a careful examination is made as to the state of refraction of the eye, the early stage of this disease may be mistaken for ordinary myopia or regular myopic astigmatism. By the ophthalmomètre of Javal and Schiötz, the reflected images are of various sizes and cannot be brought into parallel lines; this shows an irregular astigmatism of the cornea.

By retinoscopy we find the shadow to be quite different in appearance and movement from those of myopia and hypermetropia. There is a bright central reflex surrounded by a crescentic shadow which moves round the centre, but never crosses it as the mirror is rotated.

By the ophthalmoscope the vessels of the optic disc and the optic disc itself appear to be distorted, and to alter in shape and size with each movement of the observer's head, just as occurs in looking at an object through a pane of bad glass. The first symptom of the disease is that of diminished vision, first for distant and then for near and small objects. The disease usually comes on gradually, and without pain or inflammation. As it progresses, the cornea becomes perceptibly conical in appearance and the vision sometimes so defective that the patient can only read large type (Snellen, 6, 9, or 12). Often, however, with very great conicity the near vision remains good, but the object has to be brought extremely close to the eye. Such cases differ from simple myopia, however, in the fact that no lens improves the distant vision. In advanced cases, the top of the cone sometimes becomes opaque, but there is seldom perforation of the cornea, unless the case is complicated by injury.

The disease generally comes on at the age of fifteen to twenty years, sometimes later; it usually undergoes a steady progress for two or three years, and then remains stationary. It appears to be more common in young women than in men, and to occur more frequently in England than in other parts of the world.

The pathology of conical cornea is still obscure. The cornea, especially at its central part, is always thinned; it may be that this thinning of the corneal tissue is the essential feature of the affection, causing the weakened cornea to yield to the normal intra-ocular tension. On the other hand, it is possible, as was supposed by Von Graefe, that the affection commences with increased intra-ocular tension, and that the thinning and bulging of the cornea are secondary to this. Against this theory, however, is the fact that no history of the symptoms which generally accompany increased tension can usually be obtained, and that the rare cases of glaucoma in subjects of this age do not follow this course.

Treatment.—The treatment of this very serious affection has received much attention during the last half-century. Bowman, Critchett, Graefe, Donders, Wecker, and many others, have spared no pains in their endeavours to prevent its progress and to remedy its bad results.

Donders found that near vision could be improved by placing a stenopaic disc in front of the affected eye ; but the smallness of the circle which he found it necessary to use for this purpose was too limited to be useful for distant vision, the visual field being so contracted that the patient could only see objects which are situated immediately in front of the eye. These stenopaic spectacles are therefore only useful for near work, such as reading, needlework, and the like. They are of but little use during the progressive stage of the disease, as, owing to the increasing myopia, they would require to be changed too frequently before the eye had reached a stationary condition. In exceptional cases, a strong concave glass (15 D to 20 D) without the stenopaic circle or slit is beneficial.

The advantage obtained by the stenopaic slit induced Mr. Bowman to try to diminish the aperture of the pupil by lateral deviation and elongation. This he succeeded in doing by the operation of **iridodesis**, and the method was attended with considerable improvements as to vision, and was at one time much practised. The delicacy of the operation, however, requires great skill in its performance, and the act of incarcerating the iris in a corneal cicatrix is one which is rather to be avoided, owing to the troubles which may be thereby set up, not only in the wounded eye, but in that of the opposite side. (*See* Sympathetic Ophthalmitis.)

Graefe first suggested imitating the contraction of tissue, which occurs in the healing of perforating ulcers, by the production of an ulcer artificially. To effect this he removed the apex of the cone; the part excised was about 2 mm. or 3 mm. in diameter, and involved about two-thirds of the thickness of the cornea. For some ten to fifteen days after this excision he applied the crayon of nitrate of silver to the exposed surface, and finally allowed the surface to heal; the result was that the curvature of the cornea became reduced and the vision considerably improved. It must be admitted that the operation of removing so thin a portion from the apex of the cone is not easy to perform. The cornea is very thin, and perforation is most likely to be the result of such an attempt. The application of nitrate of silver for so many consecutive days is again very painful. The operation is also certain to produce a dense opacity of the central parts of the cornea, and is pretty sure to necessitate the formation of an artificial pupil.

Bowman, acting on the same principle as that of Von Graefe, determined to remove a circular piece from the apex of the cone, involving its whole thickness. He did not apply caustic to the wound, but allowed it to cicatrise.

The operation is performed with a small trephine (fig. 35),

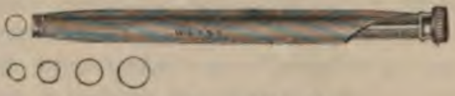

FIG. 35.—Corneal Trephine.

which consists of a simple tube having one extremity ground down to a fine cutting edge at the expense of its outer surface, so that it tapers slightly; within the tube, and fitting it accurately, is a piston, by means of which the depth to which the instrument is allowed to cut can be regulated. The upper end of the piston projects, and is marked by a small scale showing the distance of the other end of the piston from the cutting edge. The whole instrument is about 5 c.m. long, and in use is rotated by the finger and thumb. It is well to be provided with three sizes, having a diameter of 1 mm., 2 mm., and 3 mm. respectively.

Before using the instrument the piston is set to correspond with the supposed thickness of the cornea; it is then placed on the apex of the cone and rotated rapidly backwards and forwards Every few seconds it is removed to see whether the cornea has been penetrated. When this has been done the aqueous does not escape as long as the trephine is in position, because its conical extremity prevents leaking by the side of the cutting edge, while the calibre of the tube is closed by the piston. When the whole thickness of the cornea has been penetrated, the small piece may come away with the instrument; usually, however, owing to the unequal thinning of the membrane, it is held *in situ* by a few undivided portions and corneal tissue; perforation is then only known to have taken place by the fact that the aqueous escapes when the trephine is removed. The little scale can now be easily removed with forceps and fine scissors. The portion excised should correspond to the apex of the cone.

After the cicatrix has formed, an artificial pupil is made opposite that part of the cornea which is thought to be most desirable.

Abadie states that he has been successful in combining the operation of iridotomy with that of trephining. He first excises the circular piece of cornea as recommended by Bowman, and then introduces the blades of the iridotomy scissors through the opening thus made, and divides the iris vertically downwards.[1] This method of Bowman, with or without modifications as to the shape of the trephine, has been extensively practised, and is often attended with excellent results in the improvement of vision.

During the after treatment the eyelids should be kept constantly closed for a week; and as it is desirable to obtain dilatation of the pupil as soon as possible, atropine ointment (F. 34) should be applied to the outside of the closed lids.

Excision of an oval piece of the cornea (Bader) is an operative procedure which is now frequently adopted. Similar in principle to the preceding, it is followed by equally good results, and takes less time in healing.

Operation.—A Graefe's linear knife is made to transfix the apex of the cone, so that the point just passes through the fore part of the anterior chamber; the distance between the puncture and the counter-puncture should not exceed 3 mm. Having transfixed in this way, the knife must be made to cut its way out in a direction upwards and forwards, the eye being held steady with the fixation forceps. The lower flap of the wound is now seized with forceps, and an oval portion is cut from it with scissors; the widest part of this portion should not exceed 1 mm. The eyelids are then closed, and the case is afterwards treated as for trephining. I have seen very good results from this method of operating both in my own practice and in that of others.

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[1] *Maladies des Yeux*, par Ch. Abadie. Paris, 1876.

In the early stages of conical cornea, before operation has been decided upon, or when the patient will not submit to operation, the general health should be supported by tonic regimen. The application of a compress of lint to the closed eyelids daily, taking each eye on alternate days, has also been advised. The use of ½ or 1 per cent. solution of eserine dropped into the eyes three times daily, with the hope of diminishing intraocular tension, may also be tried. Paracentesis of the anterior chamber at intervals may also be of benefit.

Burns, wounds, and other injuries of the cornea are of frequent occurrence.

Burns are produced by quicklime, mineral acids, caustics, boiling water, strong ammonia, fusing metals, gunpowder, and the like. The action of quicklime upon the cornea is very destructive, more so than the appearance of the cornea immediately after the accident would lead us to imagine. When only the superficial portion of the corneal tissue is cloudy, the deeper parts remaining transparent, we may hope for some preservation of vision, but when there is a diffused and deep grey appearance, the prognosis is very unfavourable.

Treatment must be immediate. Both the eyelids should be everted and thoroughly cleansed with tepid water and cotton wool, and all particles of lime having been removed from the conjunctival sac, a drop of ½ per cent. solution of atropine should be placed in the eye, and a slight compress applied. Should the conjunctiva and neighbouring parts become much inflamed, soothing lotions and atropine drops must be employed. The eyelids must be opened daily, and precautions taken to prevent adhesions between the globe and the lids. (*See* Symblepharon.)

Wounds of the cornea are of frequent occurrence. They may be superficial or penetrating.

Superficial wounds may consist of a simple abrasion, or a scratch, with or without contusion. These injuries usually heal without trouble; they simply require that the eye should be thoroughly cleansed, that a few drops of ½ per cent. solution of atropine and a light compress should be applied. A nebula or leucoma may remain at the seat of injury, and the patient should be prepared for this defect, which may interfere with the vision of that eye. When there is any persisting purulent affection of the injured eye, such as dacryo-cystitis, or granular conjunctivitis, the cornea is less able to recover from the traumatism. The wound may become inflamed, and suppuration with hypopyon supervene.

Penetrating wounds of the cornea are of great importance, on account of the grave complications which sometimes attend them. In all cases there is immediate escape of the aqueous humour through the wound, and, the anterior chamber being thus emptied, the iris is approximated, if not brought into actual contact with the posterior surface of the cornea. Sometimes it protrudes through the wound.

Treatment.—If the wound is near the periphery of the cornea, eserine (½ per cent. solution) should be dropped into the palpebral aperture so as to contract the pupil, and so draw the iris from the wound. If the wound is at or near the centre, then for similar reasons the use of a solution of atropine (1 per cent.) is indicated. The eye should be at once closed by a light compress of lint, which can be kept moist with cold water.

When the iris is entangled or protruding from the wound, the case is more serious. If seen within a few hours after the accident an attempt should be made to return it. Bearing in mind that the anterior chamber is now quite shallow, we must be careful not to wound the crystalline lens, which is immediately behind the iris. For reducing the hernia of the iris a blunt-ended caoutchouc spatula (fig. 28) may be used, combined at the same time with the local use of atropine or eserine, according as the wound is central or peripheral.

It is sometimes found impossible to effect a return of the iris in this manner; in which case the protruding portion should be seized with forceps and snipped off with scissors on a level with the surface, and the edges of the prolapsed portion reduced if possible; atropine or eserine should be instilled and a light compress applied.

If the case is not seen till two or three days after the accident, no attempt should be made to return the iris, as it will by that time have become inflamed, swollen, and perhaps adherent; the projecting portion must be excised with scissors in the manner just indicated.

When the crystalline lens is wounded it is liable to become greatly swollen, and to set up glaucomatous tension and inflammatory trouble.

The cause of injury should always be carefully ascertained, in order to be sure that no foreign body has entered the eyeball.

Foreign bodies in the cornea are of frequent occurrence, and of great variety. Those most commonly met with are small bits of metal, coal dust, and sand.

The presence of a foreign body in the corneal tissue is marked by immediate pain, photophobia, and lachrymation; the pain is most intense when the substance is so situated as to be rubbed against and pressed upon by the eyelid. If not quickly removed, local keratitis is set up. The presence of a foreign body is sometimes difficult to recognise, especially when it is very small, but by careful examination with oblique focal illumination (p. 70) it can always be detected.

Immediate removal is in all cases imperative. The difficulty of this will depend upon the depth to which the particle has become embedded in the tissue. For ordinary cases in which it is situated on a level with the surface the surgeon stands behind the patient, who is seated in a good light, with his head thrown back and protected by a towel, so that it can be steadied against the surgeon's chest; the eyelids are now separated by the fingers of the left hand and the globe held in position by firm pressure of the same fingers against the ocular conjunctiva. The patient is directed to look in such a direction as may bring the foreign body most clearly into view, and to fix his vision in that direction as much as possible. A small spud, fig. 36, is now used; this should be passed fairly beneath the embedded particle, which can then be elevated and removed.

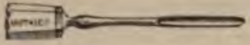

FIG. 36.—Corneal Spud.

When the foreign body is deeply embedded in the cornea, so that it touches or even perforates Descemet's membrane, it may be impossible to remove it by the above method; in this case the patient should be anæsthetised, and a broad needle passed through the cornea into the anterior chamber, in such a way that the flat portion of the needle can be passed behind the part where the foreign body is embedded. A little pressure is here made, and the point of a Beer's cataract knife or a keratome can now be used to cut down to the particle, and remove it without fear of its falling into the anterior chamber. This done, the broad needle is withdrawn. A drop of atropine solution is used, and the eye closed by a light compress for a few days.

When a foreign body is allowed to remain in the cornea it establishes local keratitis which may be very severe and extend to the whole cornea; the surrounding tissue becomes hazy and rather swollen, and the particle sooner or later becomes loose and detached. The resulting opacity in this case is much greater than it would have been had the particle been removed at once; and in the case of some metals there is often a considerable stain left from deposit of the oxide.

Tumours of the cornea are very rare. They occasionally occur primarily in this tissue, but usually extend from similar growths either of the ocular conjunctiva or of the interior of the eye. The chief tumours are epithelioma: sarcoma, fibroma, and dermoid cyst.

Epithelioma of the cornea usually invades this structure by extension from the ocular conjunctiva; it sometimes, however, appears as a small whitish or yellowish-white nodule at the sclero-corneal junction. At first it causes but slight pain or inconvenience, and may be mistaken for a phlyctenule; sooner or later it spreads and becomes painful; the surface may soften and break down.

Figs. 1 and 2 (opposite p. 10) represent a section of epithelioma in this region. They present the typical appearance of epithelioma, viz. excessive ingrowths of epithelial tissue, in the depths of which the cells arrange themselves in concentric circles, thus assuming a 'nest-like' form.

Treatment.—Complete removal of the diseased tissue is the only way of preventing the spread of this new growth. This may be attempted by scraping with the lupus scoop, or by excising with a knife. As a rule the disease returns and spreads to the surrounding tissues. Under such circumstances the eye had better be enucleated, and any surrounding tissues that may be affected should at the same time be cut away.

Sarcoma of the cornea more commonly occurs by extension from neighbouring tissues. It varies in its rate of progress, but as a rule is rapidly destructive. Figs. 1 and 2 represent sections of this tumour. In fig. 1 it will be observed that the epithelial or conjunctival layer is left intact, while the new growth has attacked only the tissue beneath this.

Treatment consists in early excision of the eye and all surrounding tissues which may be implicated.

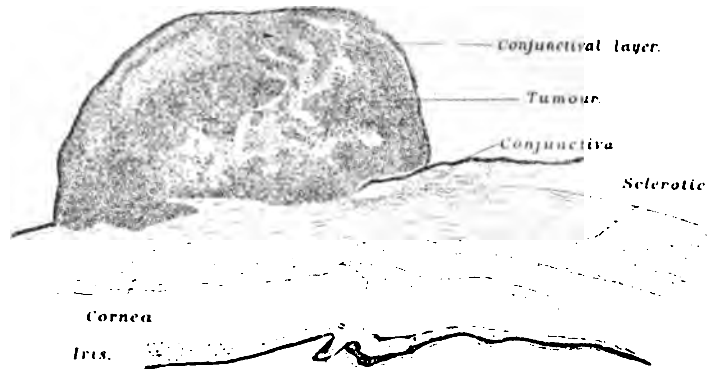

Fig. 1. Sarcoma of cornea × ab. 40.

Fig. 2. Cells from tumour.

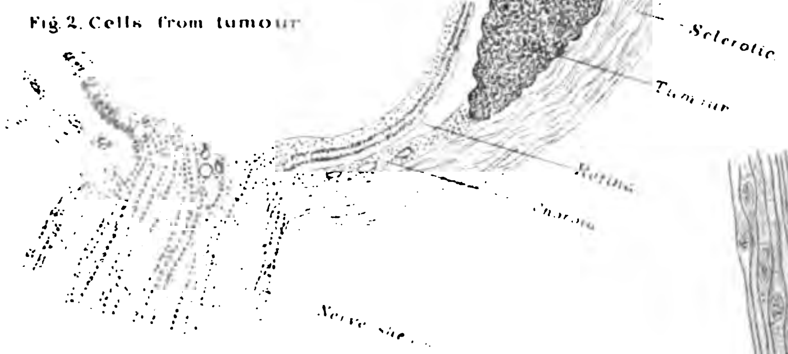

Fig. 3. Sarcoma of choroid × about 40.

Fig. 5. Laminated structure of the lens × 4
(After Arnold)

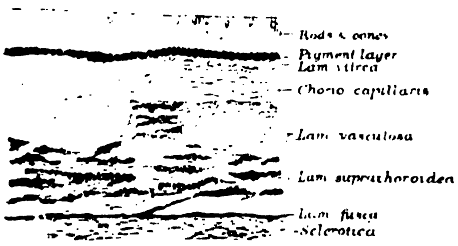

Fig. 4. Diagrammatic section of choroid × about 150

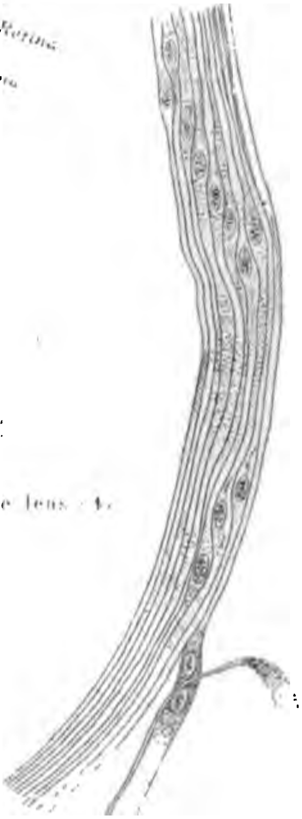

Fig. 6. Fibres of the lens × 350
(After Henle.)

CHAPTER V.

THE DISEASES OF THE SCLEROTIC.

ANATOMY—SCLERITIS—EPISCLERITIS—CONTUSIONS—RUPTURE—WOUNDS.

Anatomy and Physiology.—The sclerotic is a strong, opaque, fibrous structure continuous with the cornea, from which it extends backwards so as to complete the external coat of the eye. Its outer surface is white and smooth; its inner surface is of a light brown colour. It is thickest at the back part of the eye and thinnest about 6 mm. from the cornea; at the point of union with the latter it again becomes thicker. Posteriorly it is pierced by the optic nerve at a point about 2·5 mm. internal to the antero-posterior axis of the globe.

At the opening through which the optic nerve passes the sclerotic is not altogether absent, for it sends across fine trabeculæ, which form a sieve-like membrane through which the nerve fibres pass. This, which is called the *lamina cribrosa*, is composed of bundles of white fibrous tissue, amongst which are found numerous fibres of elastic tissue, abundant connective-tissue corpuscles, and some pigment cells.

The texture of the sclerotic is permeated by a network of capillaries having very wide meshes; towards the periphery of the cornea this network becomes much increased, forming a vascular ring, *the ciliary or circumcorneal zone*, from which loops are supplied to the cornea.

The canal of Schlemm (see fig. 1, opposite p. 68, also fig. 37) is a small, flattened, somewhat oval space, situated in the anterior part of the sclerotic, close to its junction with the cornea. It communicates with the anterior chamber by fine clefts between the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum. The precise manner in which it communicates with the veins in its immediate vicinity is still disputed. In all probability certain valvular arrangements exist which, under ordinary conditions of intraocular pressure, allow the contents of the canal to pass outwards, either directly into the veins or into lymphatic spaces surrounding the latter.

The ligamentum pectinatum is situated just inside the sclerocorneal junction (fig. 37). It is intimately attached to this part, and thence extends to the iris, the ciliary processes, and the ciliary muscle. Its trabeculæ and lamellæ are composed of elastic fibres, which are derived from the splitting up of the membrane of Descemet. The endothelium from the posterior surface of Descemet's membrane is continued over these fibres, and on to the anterior surface of the iris.

Between the sclerotic and the anterior part of the ocular conjunctiva is found some loose connective tissue; this, which varies in amount in different individuals, is called episcleral tissue.

Covering the sclerotic is the **capsule of Tenon.** This is a fibrous capsule, which envelops the sclerotic and sends off processes in various directions. Anteriorly it extends to within about 3 mm. of the cornea, and blends with the sclerotic and conjunctiva. Another portion passes in a radial direction behind the conjunctiva and the palpebral ligament, to become united with the periosteum; other reflections take place along the ocular muscles in the form of sheaths; posteriorly the capsule is continued along the optic nerve as far as the optic foramen. This capsule is lined by flattened epithelioid cells, similar to those of serous membrane. It forms a socket in which the globe can rotate in any direction. Its cavity communicates with the lamina suprachoroidea by means of the perivascular lymph-spaces surrounding the venæ vorticosæ.

Sclerotitis or **Scleritis** is characterised by general injection of the superficial vessels which produces a faint pinkish tint. The ocular conjunctiva may be at the same time affected, but the colour of this is of a deeper red, and its vessels can be made to move with the membrane, and can be emptied by slight digital pressure, whilst the pink hue of the scleral injection still shows through. As the inflammation increases, the sclerotic becomes of a deeper colour, and assumes a bluish tint. Scleritis is occasionally met with in rheumatic and gouty subjects.

Episcleritis is an inflamed condition of the episcleral tissue, which may exist with or without sclerotitis. It consists of a dusky red nodular swelling beneath the ocular conjunctiva. It usually occurs in single patches, measuring from 4 mm. to 6 mm. in diameter, but two or more lumps may form in the same eye. It is slow in progress, often lasting many months. It is usually unattended by pain; occasionally, however, this is considerable, and is then accompanied by photophobia and lachrymation. Vision is not often interfered with, but in some cases the part of the cornea which is nearest the patch of episcleritis becomes hazy, and in others the sclerotic and the choroid are affected; under these circumstances the vision will be defective in proportion to the severity of the complication.

Generally the patch disappears, leaving no perceptible lesion. In prolonged cases, however, it not unfrequently causes some thinning of the sclerotic, which, in slight degrees, is indicated by a dark bluish appearance, and in more extreme cases so weakens the tissue of the sclerotic that it yields to the intraocular pressure and become staphylomatous. Episcleritis is somewhat rare; it appears to be most common in adult females, and to be in some way associated with uterine disorders. It also occurs by preference in those who suffer from rheumatism, and in persons affected with syphilis. A slight injury is not unfrequently its exciting cause.

Treatment.—The eyes should be protected from light by a shade, or by blue tinted spectacles. Atropine drops (strength ½ or 1 per cent.) should be used several times daily. Caustics and irritating astringents should be strictly avoided. When there is much pain, a few leeches applied to the temporal region may be of service.

In prescribing internal remedies, the probable cause of the affection must as far as possible be treated.

Contusions of the sclerotic are only of importance in proportion as they affect other structures.

Rupture of the sclerotic occasionally results from a severe blow upon the eye, and the violence of the injury is generally sufficient to produce other lesions at the same time. The most common situation of the rupture is from 2 mm. to 4 mm. from the corneal margin, and therefore in the ciliary region; the rent is usually somewhat irregular, but its general direction is often that of a curve concentric with the margin of the cornea. It frequently happens that the contents of the globe are at the same time evacuated or so displaced as to cause inflammatory and other troubles. Thus the lens may be dislocated, and may make its escape through the wound; the iris may be partially or entirely detached and protruding, and the vitreous may have partly escaped. There is usually copious hæmorrhage into the globe, and as this, for the most part, comes from the choroid, it generally indicates that the retina is extensively detached.

Treatment must depend upon the seat and extent of the rupture and the state of the contents of the globe. If the rupture is situated in the ciliary region the risks of sympathetic inflammation attacking the other eye have to be considered, as well as the extent of the injury, and in such a case immediate enucleation is the safest course to adopt. If, however, the ciliary region is only slightly encroached upon, and the conjunctiva is entire, the choice between enucleation and saving the eye will depend upon the presence and extent of other lesions.

When the eye is soft and evidently disorganised, its removal should be effected without loss of time.

When there is hæmorrhage into the globe, and the tension is not diminished, it is often difficult to say to what extent the eye is damaged internally. In this case it is best to apply an ice compress to the closed eyelids, and to wait for some days until the blood may be absorbed; the vision can then be tested, a diagnosis established by the aid of the ophthalmoscope.

Slight ruptures, which may be unaccompanied by total loss of vision, should be placed under the expectant plan of treatment, including the use of iced compresses, and rest of both eyes.

Superficial wounds are of but slight importance, and usually heal without trouble.

Penetrating wounds are always serious, but their gravity varies with the extent and the nature of the wound, the physiological importance of the parts wounded, and with the presence or absence of any foreign body within the globe.

Incised wounds, posterior to the ciliary region, even though there be some escape of vitreous, are not necessarily attended by bad results. *Incised wounds in the ciliary region* are also usually unattended by bad results, so long as the parts beneath are not wounded or involved in the resulting cicatrix. The cases which are especially dangerous are those in which the ciliary body, the iris, or the lens, is wounded. *When the iris or ciliary body is injured and incarcerated in the cicatrix of the wound* there is especial danger of local inflammation and of sympathetic ophthalmitis. In such a case if the vision is lost or reduced to mere perception of light, and especially if the eye is soft, the globe should be immediately excised; but if it is still found to retain useful vision it need not be sacrificed. An attempt should be made to return the protruding iris or ciliary body by means of a spatula (fig. 28). This failing, the protrusion should be seized with iris forceps and excised as in iridectomy. Both the eyes should then be shaded from the light, and a strict watch kept against sympathetic trouble in the other eye.

The question of saving or enucleating the eye will hinge upon the position and nature of the wound and the probability of a foreign body being present. The desirability of removing the lens will be more conveniently considered in the chapter devoted to the subject of cataract.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DISEASES OF THE IRIS, THE CILIARY BODY, AND THE CHOROID.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY — IRITIS — IRIDO-CYCLITIS — CYCLITIS — IRIDO-CHOROIDITIS — SYMPATHETIC IRRITATION — SYMPATHETIC OPHTHALMITIS — INJURIES — TUMOURS — CONGENITAL DEFORMITIES — OPERATIONS — IRIDECTOMY — IRIDODESIS — CORELYSIS — IRIDOTOMY.

The Tunica Vasculosa or Uveal Tract.

Anatomy and Physiology.—This, the second tunic of the eye, is found immediately beneath the sclerotic. It consists of three parts which from before backwards are respectively called the iris, the ciliary body, and the choroid.

The Iris is the anterior part of the tunica vasculosa, which is suspended in front of the crystalline lens. It is the beautifully coloured and contractile membrane which is seen through the transparent cornea. By its circumference it is attached to the ligamentum pectinatum and to the ciliary body. At its centre is the aperture of the pupil. Its anterior surface is free, whilst the posterior surface rests by its pupillary edge against the capsule of the crystalline lens.

On section of the iris we find from before backwards the following structures:

1. *The epithelioid membrane*, which is continuous with, and similar to, that on the back of Descemet's membrane.

2. *The substantia propria* which consists of a stroma of connective tissue fibre, and of flattened branching connective tissue cells, many of which, in dark eyes, contain pigment granules. Within this stroma are found muscular fibres, blood-vessels, lymphatic tissue, and nerves. *The muscular fibres* are of the unstriped variety, and consist of a flattened ring around the edge of the pupil nearer to the posterior than to the

anterior surface (the *sphincter pupillæ*), and of some deeper fibres which extend in a radial direction from the centre to the circumference (the *dilatator pupillæ*). The arteries are derived from the circulus iridis major and from the ciliary processes. They proceed in the middle of the stroma towards the pupillary edge, and there form a free anastomosis, the circulus iridis minor; they give off capillary networks in front and behind. The middle and outer coats of the arteries are thick. The veins accompany the arteries. There are no distinct lymphatic vessels in the iris, but the sheaths of the blood-vessels contain lymphatic sinuses, as also do the trabeculæ of the stroma, which open into the spaces between the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum. The nerves of the iris follow the same course as the vessels; they are very numerous, and are derived from the short ciliary nerves coming from the ophthalmic ganglion which is connected by its roots with the third nerve, the cervical sympathetic, and with the nasal branch of the ophthalmic division of the fifth nerve. The short ciliary nerves are, moreover, accompanied by the long ciliary nerves coming from the same nasal branch of the fifth nerve. Entering the peripheral portion of the iris, they form a plexus from which branches are given off as follows; (*a*) non-medullated fibres terminating as a delicate network on the dilatator; (*b*) medullated nerves passing eventually into fine non-medullated fibrils arranged as a network close to the anterior surface; and (*c*) a network of non-medullated fibres belonging to the sphincter pupillæ. According to A. Meyer, there are in addition fine non-medullated nerve fibrils, which accompany the capillaries; and Faber considers that there are ganglion cells contained in the nerve networks of the iris. (Klein and Noble Smith.)

3. *A hyaline thin membrane* (membrana pigmenti) which is continuous with the lamina vitrea of the ciliary body.

4. *The uvea*, consisting of one or two layers of polyhedral cells, each containing an oval nucleus, and a number of dark brown pigment granules. In blue eyes this is the only part of the iris containing pigment. In the eyes of albinos the pigment is absent even here. This layer is continuous with that of the ciliary body.

The iris in health presents a brilliant appearance; its

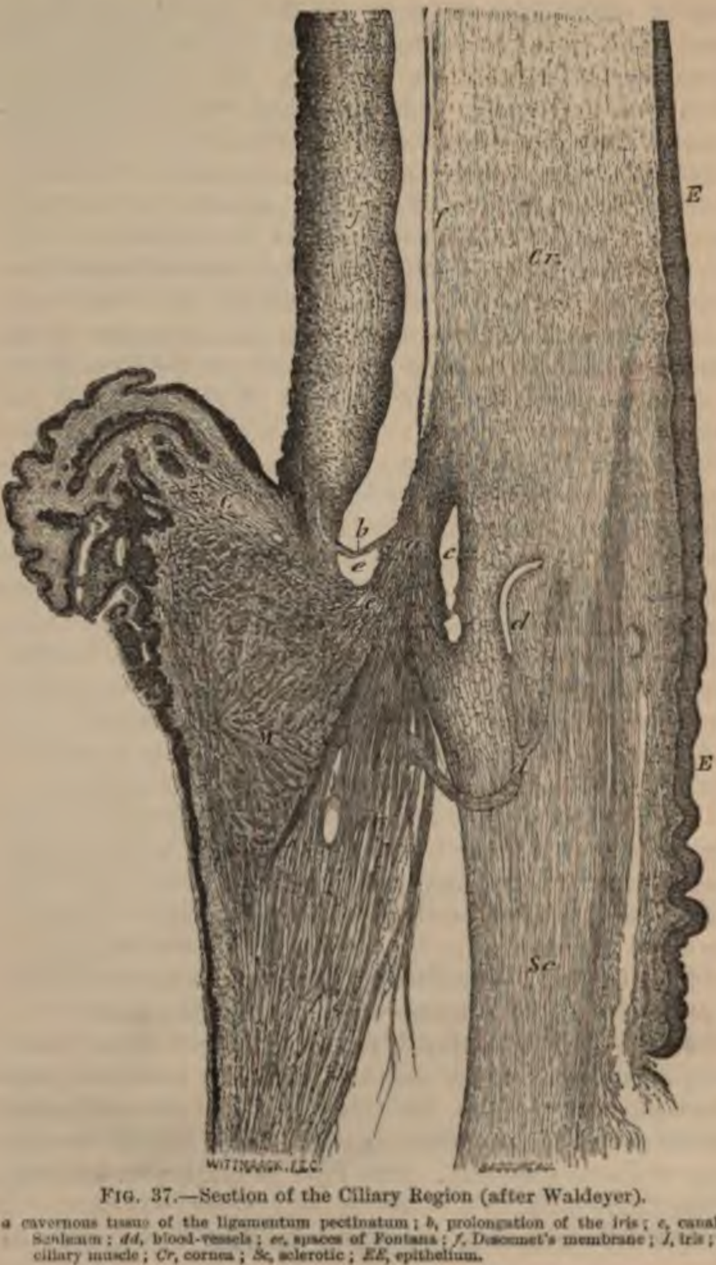

FIG. 37.—Section of the Ciliary Region (after Waldeyer).

a cavernous tissue of the ligamentum pectinatum; *b*, prolongation of the iris; *c*, canal of Schlemm; *dd*, blood-vessels; *ee*, spaces of Fontana; *f*, Descemet's membrane; *I*, iris; *M*, ciliary muscle; *Cr*, cornea; *Sc*, sclerotic; *EE*, epithelium.

colour in dark eyes is due to the presence of pigment granules in the cells of the substantia propria; in blue eyes, the colour is not due to the pigment of the uvea, but to 'interference' phenomena. The eyes of newly-born children, even among the dark races, are always blue, the pigmentation taking place after birth.

The iris with its central aperture, the pupil, serves as a diaphragm to shut off marginal rays, it also regulates the amount of light entering the eye, and it acts as an auxiliary to accommodation. The size of the pupil depends upon the state of contraction of the two antagonistic sets of muscular fibres, the sphincter and dilatator pupillæ.

In testing the mobility of the pupil the patient should be placed in front of a bright light, the other eye being first closed and shielded; the hand is then placed in front of the eye under examination, and after being held there for a few seconds, is suddenly withdrawn. In the normal eye the pupil slowly dilates while the eye is shaded, and when the hand is withdrawn there is a quick contraction followed by a very slight dilatation.

The nervous mechanism of the pupil is of a peculiar and complex nature. *Contraction of the pupil occurs* (1) when the retina is stimulated, as when light falls upon the retina, the brighter the light the greater the contraction. (2) When the optic nerve is stimulated by other agents, as electricity. (3) When the eyes are accommodated for near vision. (4) In the early stages of poisoning by chloroform, alcohol, &c.; and in nearly all stages of poisoning by morphia, eserine, and some other drugs. (5) In deep sleep. (6) After the local application of eserine and other myotics. *Dilatation of the pupil occurs* (1) when the stimulus of light is withdrawn from the retina, as by passing from a bright into a dim light. (2) When the eye is adjusted for distant vision. (3) During dyspnœa, during powerful irritation of the sensory nerves, during violent muscular efforts, in the later stages of poisoning by chloroform, and in all stages of poisoning by atropine and other drugs. (4) After the local action of atropine and other mydriatics.

'The pupil may be considered to be under the dominion of two antagonistic mechanisms: one a contracting mechanism, reflex in nature, the third nerve serving as the efferent, and the optic as the afferent tract; the other a dilating mechanism, apparently tonic in nature, but subject to augmentation from various causes, and of this the cervical sympathetic is the efferent channel. Hence, when the optic or third nerve is divided, not only does contraction of the pupil cease to be manifest, but active dilatation occurs, on account of the tonic dilating influence of the sympathetic being left free to work. When, on the other hand, the sympathetic is divided, this tonic influence falls away, and contraction results. When the optic or third nerve is stimulated, the dilating effect of the sympathetic is overcome, and contraction results; and when the sympathetic is stimulated, any contracting influence of the third nerve which may be present is overcome, and dilatation ensues' (M. Foster).

Further considerations, however, show that the matter is still more complex than this. When eserine is applied to the eye contraction of the pupil is caused whether the third nerve has been divided or not, and with a strong dose the contraction is so great that it cannot be overcome by stimulation of the sympathetic. From these and other facts it is evident that this myotic acts either directly upon the plain muscular fibres of the iris, or upon some local mechanism which is supposed to exist either in the iris itself or in the choroid, where, indeed, ganglionic cells are abundant.

With regard to the contraction of the pupils, which takes place when the eyes are accommodated for near vision, and turned inwards (the two actions being closely allied, since the eyes converge to see near objects), and the return to the more dilated condition when the eyes return to rest and regain the accommodation for distant objects; these actions are explained by what are called 'associated movements.' Two movements are said to be 'associated' when the special central nervous mechanism employed in carrying out the one act is so connected with that employed in carrying out the other, that when we set the one mechanism in action we unintentionally set the other in action also.

The Ciliary Body is that part of the tunica vasculosa which extends backwards from the base of the iris to the anterior part of the choroid (see fig. 37). It consists of the ciliary processes and the ciliary muscle. The ciliary processes are composed of a connective tissue stroma, similar to that of the iris, and continuous with it; the stroma is also continuous with the ligamentum pectinatum; the part nearest the sclerotic is of loose texture and contains the larger vessels, the internal portion contains the dense network of capillaries.

Internal to the stroma is the *lamina vitrea*, a hyaline layer continuous with that of the iris, but rather thicker. Internal to this is the *uvea*; and on the inner surface of the uvea is the *pars ciliaris retinæ*; this consists of a layer of rod-like cells of two kinds, one being stout, coarse, and nucleated, and the other extremely fine and elongated, so as to form fine fibrils, which unite together and go to the suspensory ligament. The ciliary processes are thus brought into proximity with the edge of the capsule of the lens.

The ciliary muscle (Bowman) arises from the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum opposite to the sclero-corneal junction; from this origin the greater part of its fibres (meridianal) pass directly backwards to be inserted into the choroid. Other fasciculi (oblique) pass inwards to the ciliary processes; these run divergingly, and frequently anastomose with one another; having reached the inner side they become circular. Others appear to pass in a direction almost circular (Müller's annular muscle).

In hypermetropes this annular muscle is more developed than in the emmetropic eye. In myopes, on the contrary, the circular fasciculi are feebly developed, the meridianal fibres constituting nearly all the muscle (A. Iwanoff).

The fibres are of the unstriped variety; the muscle possesses a network of capillaries and a plexus of non-medullated nerve-fibres, with numerous ganglion cells.

For the action of the muscle, *see* Refraction.

The choroid is the posterior part of the tunica vasculosa, which extends from the ciliary body to the optic disc, and lies between the sclerotic and the retina. On microscopic section it presents from without inwards the following parts (see fig. 4, opposite p. 108):

1. *The lamina fusca.*—This consists of lamellæ of loose

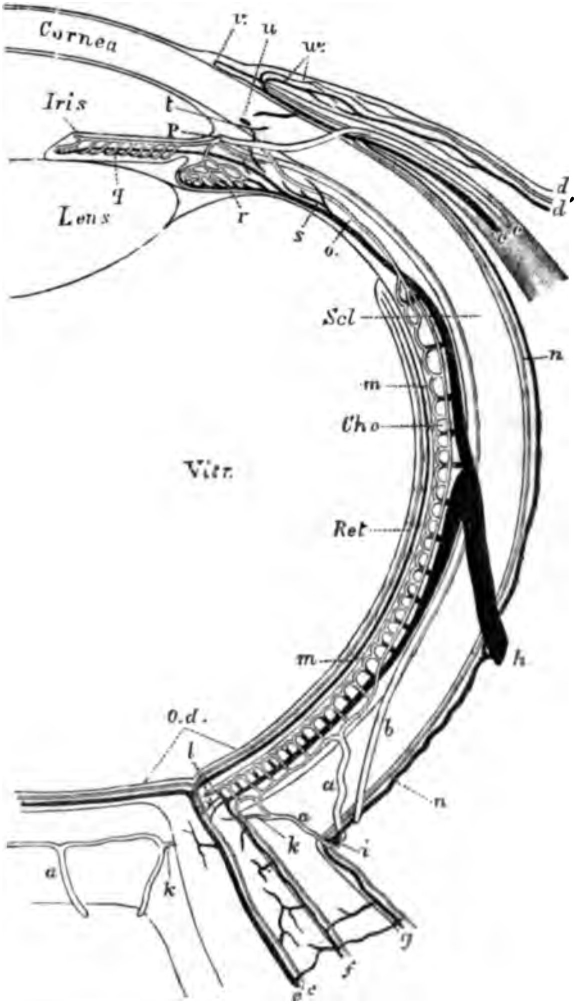

FIG. 38.—Diagrammatic Representation of the course of the Vessels in the Eye. Horizontal Section (after Leber). The veins are represented black, the arteries clear.

a, arteriæ ciliares posteriores breves; *b*, arteriæ ciliares posteriores longæ; *c'c*, arteriæ et venæ ciliares anteriores; *dd'*, arteriæ et venæ conjunctivales posteriores; *e'e*, arteriæ et venæ centrales retinæ; *f*, vessels of the internal, and *g*, of the external optic sheath; *h*, vena vorticosa; *i*, venæ ciliares posteriores breves; *k*, branch of the posterior short ciliary artery to the optic nerve; *l*, anastomes of the choroidal vessels with those of the optic nerve; *m*, chorio-capillaris; *n*, episcleral branches; *o*, arteria recurrens choroidalis; *p*, circulus arteriosus iridis maior; *q*, vessels of iris; *r*, of the ciliary processes; *s*, branch to the vena vorticalis from the ciliary muscle; *u*, circulus venosus; *v*, marginal loop plexus of the cornea; *w*, arteria et vena conjunctivalis anterior.

connective tissue containing pigment cells; it adheres to the sclerotic when this is separated from the choroid.

2. *The lamina suprachoroidea*, which is similar in structure to the lamina fusca, being composed of lamellæ of connective tissue and network of elastic tissue; when the choroid is separated from the sclerotic this part adheres to the former. The space between the lamina fusca and the lamina suprachoroidea is lined by two layers of endothelium and is considered to be a *lymph space*; in the deeper part of this lamina numerous vessels are seen in section, and each is surrounded by a lymph sheath. This is therefore called the lamina vasculosa by some observers.

3. *The elastic layer of Sattler*, consisting of two endothelial layers.

4. *The chorio-capillaris*, a dense network of capillaries containing numerous spindle-shaped and flattened cells, many of which are pigmented.

5. *The lamina vitrea*, continuous with that of ciliary body.

6. *The uvea* is continuous with that of ciliary body, and similar to it. It is considered to belong to the retina. It is this pigment layer which prevents the details of the choroid from being seen with the ophthalmoscope; when it contains little or no pigment, as in fair persons and albinos, the choroidal vessels can be distinctly seen.

The blood supply of the tunica vasculosa is very free (see fig. 38), and is divided into two distinct regions, the posterior part or choroid being supplied by the *short posterior ciliary* arteries, whilst the ciliary body and the iris are supplied by branches from the *long posterior ciliary* and the *anterior ciliary arteries. The short posterior ciliary arteries*, ten or twelve in number, pierce the sclerotic close to the optic nerve, passing through the lamina fusca into the deeper part of the lamina suprachoroidea, they divide dichotomously, and ultimately pass into the capillaries of the chorio-capillaries. Except in the region of the optic nerve the branches do not anastomose much with one another. Anteriorly they receive a few anastomotic communications from the ciliary region.

The long posterior ciliary arteries, two in number, pierce the sclerotic posteriorly, and pass forwards between this and the choroid as far as the ciliary body. They give off no branches until they arrive at the ciliary region. Having reached this, they give branches to the ciliary muscle, and then, uniting with branches from the anterior ciliaries, which have pierced the sclerotic from the front, they take a circular direction and form the circulus iridis major.

The anterior ciliary arteries, about five in number, are supplied from the muscular and lachrymal branches of the ophthalmic artery; they pierce the sclerotic near the margin of the cornea, and then divide into branches to the ciliary muscle and to the circulus iridis major above mentioned.

The circulus iridis major gives off branches to the ciliary processes, which divide up into numberless fine branches. It also gives branches to the iris, which pass radially towards the pupillary margin, where they form an anastomotic ring, *the circulus iridis minor.*

The veins of the tunica vasculosa are somewhat different in their mode of termination to that of the arteries. Thus the anterior ciliary veins are quite rudimentary, and the blood from the veins of the iris and ciliary region is all returned to the choroidal veins. In the region of the canal of Schlemm there is a venous plexus, which also sends its blood to the choroidal veins.

The veins of the choroid anastomose very freely with one another; they do not accompany the posterior short ciliary arteries, but are arranged in curves (venæ vorticosæ) as they converge to about four principal trunks; these pierce the sclerotic very obliquely about half-way between the optic nerve and the cornea to join the ophthalmic vein (*h*, fig. 38).

The function of the tunica vasculosa is of great importance. In the first place there is a slight anastomosis between the vessels of the choroid at the edge of the optic disc and those of the optic nerve at the same place, so that these may have some influence in the nutrition of the optic nerve and retina. Secondly, the capillary layers of the choroid, the chorio-capillaris, and its corresponding parts in the ciliary processes and in the iris, are of great importance in the general nutrition of the eye, and in the regulation of intraocular tension. Then the chorio-capillaris undoubtedly supplies nutrition and warmth to the *outer layers of the retina*; in conjunction with the ciliary processes it also supplies nourishment to the vitreous. The ciliary processes, by their proximity to the edge of the lens, are considered to be the chief agents of nutrition to that body (Brailey).

The aqueous humour is secreted by the ciliary processes and the posterior surface of the iris. The course of the circulation of the aqueous humour will be presently considered under the lymphatic system of the eye.

The ciliary nerves, about fifteen in number, are derived from the ophthalmic ganglion and from the nasal branch of the fifth nerve. They pierce the sclerotic near the optic nerve entrance; passing forwards between this tunic and choroid they send branches to the latter, and to the ciliary body, iris, and cornea.

The lymphatics of the eye.—Schwalbe[1] has shown that there exist in the eye several spaces in which lymph is formed, and from which it is discharged in three directions. These he classifies into an anterior and two posterior systems.

The anterior lymphatic system comprises the canal of Petit, the aqueous chamber, the spaces of Fontana, the canal of Schlemm, and the venous or lymphatic plexus in connection with this canal. The lymph secreted by the ciliary processes travels to the aqueous chamber by three channels; a large proportion passes to the vitreous humour and the canal of Petit, and thence through the suspensory ligament to the aqueous chamber, then forwards through the pupil; another portion passes directly into the aqueous chamber, and then forwards through the pupil; a third current takes place from the ciliary processes through the base of the iris into the periphery of the aqueous chamber. The posterior surface of the iris probably secretes a very small quantity of lymph, which passes through the pupil. The *aqueous humour* thus formed leaves the aqueous chamber at the angle between the iris and the cornea by passing through the meshwork of the ligamentum pectinatum (spaces of Fontana); it then reaches the canal of Schlemm, where there exists a system of valves through which the aqueous passes directly into the plexus of veins in its immediate vicinity. Having thus reached the blood-current, it is conveyed to the choroidal veins.

The posterior lymphatic spaces are two in number, viz.

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[1] Stricker's *Handbook of Histology*.

those of the choroid and the sclerotic, and those of the retina and optic nerve. The first of these has already been mentioned as existing between the lamina fusca and lamina suprachoroidea; this space communicates, by means of perivascular sheaths surrounding the venæ vorticosæ, with the lymph space within the capsule of Tenon, which, as we have seen, extends along the outside of the optic nerve, through the cranium, and into the lymphatics of the neck.

The lymphatics of the retina form sheaths to the blood-vessels, and so pass to the optic nerve. The optic nerve also possesses another lymph space between its pial and dural sheaths, *the intersheath space*, which communicates posteriorly with the sub-arachnoid cavity, and terminates anteriorly at the lamina cribrosa.

Iritis.—*Symptoms.* 1. *The mobility of the iris is diminished.*—In all cases of inflammation of the iris the pupil will be found to move less actively than in health; in some cases its movements are sluggish, in others it is quite inactive.

2. *Vision is impaired.*—The normal eye, when emmetropic, is able to read No. 6 of Snellen's test types at six mètres' distance, but in iritis this will nearly always be found to be impossible. The patient will only be able to see the larger types, Nos. 9 to 60, at this distance.

3. *The colour of the iris is altered.*—This change is sometimes very slight, and liable to escape notice, but by a careful examination with oblique focal illumination, there will nearly always be found a change in the colour of the tissue surrounding the edge of the pupil. In many cases this is very marked, the blue or grey iris becoming of a yellowish-green tint, whilst the dark brown colour assumes a brownish red, or rust colour. Besides this, there is generally a dull muddy appearance of the tissue of the iris.

4. *The blood-vessels immediately surrounding the cornea are injected.*—These are always seen as a pink, or deep red ring, whenever iritis is present (see fig. 8, opposite p. 74).

5. *Pain* may be entirely absent, or may exist in various degrees within the eye, and in the surrounding temporal, frontal, and malar regions. It is often associated with photophobia and lachrymation.

Pathology.—Three chief forms of iritis are found, viz. the serous, the plastic, and the suppurative.

1. **Iritis serosa** (keratitis punctata, descemetitis, aquocapsulitis). In this affection *the pupil is sluggish in action, and is somewhat dilated.* The iris becomes lustreless, and rather muddy in appearance; it evinces but little tendency to the formation of plastic exudations, but the inflammatory action is prone to extend backwards to the ciliary body, and the choroid, and forwards along the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum to the epithelioid layer at the back of Descemet's membrane, the cells of which become proliferated, and heaped up into little masses, which, as the disease advances, may be seen by the oblique focal illumination as small *dots of opacity* at the back of the cornea. In this condition, which is known as *keratitis punctata*, the dots of opacity may be irregularly scattered, or they may occupy a triangular area, the apex of which is opposite the pupil, and the base at the periphery of the cornea, either below or at one side (see fig. 5, opposite p. 74).

The tension of the globe is increased, and the aqueous humour is turbid. This is due in the first place to hypersecretion of lymph from the posterior surfaces of the iris and the ciliary body, and secondly to obstructed outflow of the aqueous into the canal of Schlemm, owing to the swelling of the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum, which guard the entrance to that cavity.

Fig. 1, opposite p. 126, represents a section of the ciliary region of such a case, in which we see that the iris is somewhat thickened and hypernucleated, that the posterior part of the uveal tract is but little affected, and that there are no plastic exudations upon its surface. The walls of the arteries are thickened; the inflammation has extended backwards to the ciliary body, which is swollen and also infiltrated with leucocytes; it has also extended forwards along the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum, to the epithelioid layer at the back of Descemet's membrane, where the cells have also undergone proliferation.

2. **Iritis plastica.**—Under this head may be placed a large and varied class of cases, in all of which, however, we find a tendency to the exudation of plastic matter within the sub-

stance, or upon the surface, of the iris. These forms are described under various headings, such as Syphilitic Iritis, Rheumatic Iritis, &c. In plastic iritis the pupil is always more or less contracted. The iris is changed in colour; this is most marked immediately around the edge of the pupil, but the whole tissue of the iris loses its brilliancy, and assumes a muddy appearance (see fig. 8, opposite p. 74).

Syphilitic iritis comes on as a secondary symptom, generally appearing some weeks after the occurrence of the rash. It differs from other forms of plastic iritis in the large amount of lymph which is thrown out, and in the rapidity with which this becomes organised, causing change in the colour of the iris, and extensive adhesions. Gummatous nodules (p. 150) also are sometimes seen. Pain and conjunctival injection are often comparatively insignificant.

Rheumatic iritis is most common in the chronic forms of rheumatism. It is attended with greater pain and conjunctival injection than the syphilitic form. The plastic exudation, however, is less, and there is consequently less change of colour in the iris, and the adhesions are less extensive and form less rapidly. It shows great tendency to relapse.

The change of colour is due to the exudation of lymphoid cells, and to turbidity of the aqueous; it is most marked near the pupillary edge; the whole thickness of the iris becomes inflamed, and the cells of the posterior uveal portion undergo proliferation, throwing out a layer of lymph upon the surface between the iris and capsule of the lens (fig. 2, opposite p. 127). Unless the pupil is dilated by atropine, or some other mydriatic, this lymph becomes organised, and causes **posterior synechia**, or adhesion between the back of the iris and the capsule of the lens. This synechia may be partial or complete; when partial, there may be one or many points of attachment, so that when atropine is used the unattached portion of the iris is drawn out, whilst the attached portion remains in position, giving the pupil an irregular outline, which varies considerably in different cases (see fig. 10, opposite p. 74). When the whole of the edge of the pupil is adherent to the capsule of the lens, so that no fluid can pass from behind through its aperture, the condition is called **total posterior synechia**, or **exclusion of the pupil.** It

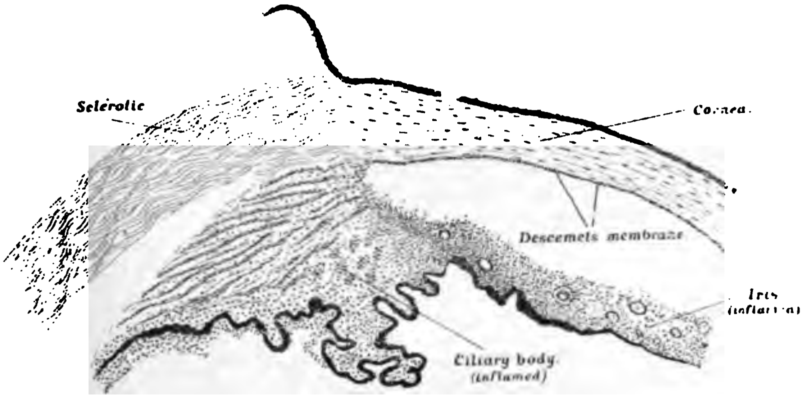

Fig.1 Iritis serosa. × about 40.

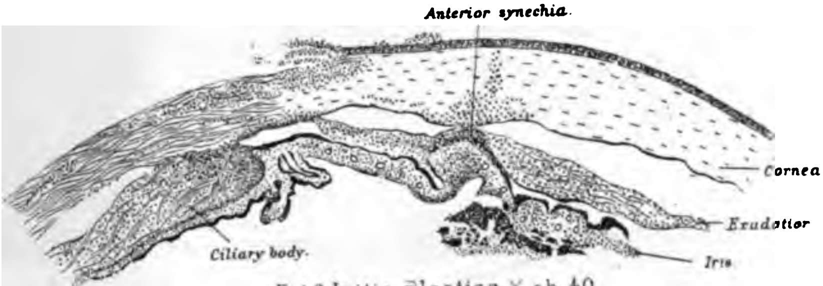

Fig 2. Iritis plastica × ab 40.

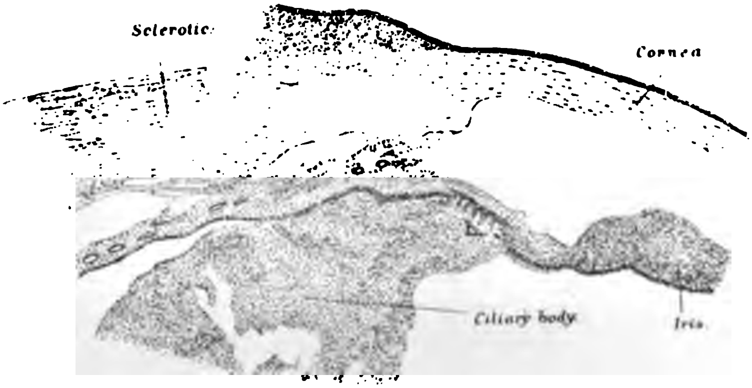

Fig.3 Iritis suppurativa × ab. 40.

not unfrequently happens in severe plastic iritis that lymph is also thrown out, so as to occupy the area of the pupil, there becoming organised into an opaque persistent membrane, which may be perforated by one or more small apertures. This condition is termed **occlusion of the pupil.**

In cases of iritis following penetrating wounds, and perforating ulcers of the cornea, the escape of the aqueous having allowed the iris to come into contact with the cornea, an adhesion—**anterior synechia**—often takes place between the iris and cornea.

Fig. 2, on the opposite page, shows a section of severe plastic iritis, in which it will be seen that the tissue of the iris is excessively hypernucleated and altered. On its anterior surface is a definite layer of organised lymph, forming an anterior synechia. On the posterior surface the pigment layer is greatly thickened, and presents a portion of exudation which has been torn from the capsule of the lens. The ciliary body is but little affected.

3. **Iritis suppurativa** is characterised by marked and rapid changes in the iris. The pupil is contracted, and either sluggish or immovable. The tissue of the iris is swollen, and its colour changed to a muddy green or brownish-yellow. The aqueous humour is at first slightly turbid, but before long there is a collection of yellowish puro-lymph at the bottom of the anterior chamber, which may increase so much as to occupy the greater part of that cavity. Suppurative iritis is seldom confined to the tissue of the iris, but is usually either derived from or extends to the surrounding tissues, as the cornea, the ciliary body, the choroid, and the vitreous. When not due to injury, it is usually associated with a low state of health.

Fig. 3, on the opposite page, represents a section of the ciliary region of such a case. This shows the iris to be greatly swollen, and infiltrated throughout with inflammatory cells. The walls of the vessels are thickened, and with a higher power are found to be completely blocked with leucocytes. The ciliary body, and even the choroid and sclerotic in the ciliary region, are also thickened by inflammatory infiltration.

Causes of iritis.—In many cases of either serous, plastic, or suppurative iritis it is quite impossible to trace any cause whatever. The plastic and suppurative forms are frequently set up by wounds of the cornea or anterior part of the sclerotic, and may follow operations in which the iris has been bruised, as in cataract extraction, also by other injuries of the eye, such as contusions without wounds. *Syphilis* is an occasional cause of serous iritis and a very frequent cause of the plastic form. *Rheumatism* is also a common cause of plastic iritis, and occasionally gives rise to the serous and the suppurative forms. A gouty diathesis is also thought to predispose to iritis. The serous form of iritis may at any time take on a plastic nature, and both the serous and the plastic forms may go on to suppuration. Iritis is more common in adults than in young subjects. When observed in children under ten years of age, it is almost invariably due to an injury, to inflammation or ulcer of the cornea, or to inherited syphilis. It may even occur *in utero*.

Prognosis, Treatment, and Complications.

In the treatment of iritis the first and most important object is to **dilate the pupil.** This is best effected by the use of a 1 per cent. solution of atropine dropped into the eyes every three or four hours. This causes the widest possible dilatation of the pupil, and by keeping the pupillary edge of the iris away from the capsule of the lens prevents the formation of posterior synechia. If adhesions have already formed and are recent, it is a good plan to use atropine every hour for a few hours; this treatment is likely to break them down, leaving perhaps a few dots, or a ring of pigmented lymph upon the capsule, which, however, may partially or entirely disappear. If the adhesions are of sufficient age to have become firmly organised, the atropine will not break them down, but it will still cause dilatation of any part of the pupil that may be unattached, and so prevent further complication of this kind.

In using atropine, it must be remembered that the ciliary muscle is temporarily paralysed, and that near vision is, therefore, greatly impaired for the time. Again, the use of this drug occasionally gives rise to what is called **atropine irritation.** This consists of irritable conjunctivitis, and of swelling and erythema of the skin of the eyelids and surrounding region. In some cases it is very severe. I have a patient under my care, aged twenty-three, in whom a single application of atropine is sufficient to set up violent pain in the eyes with photophobia, intense injection of the conjunctiva with chemosis, great redness, swelling and a vesicular eruption of the skin of the eyelids, cheeks, and forehead. When this complication arises, the atropine must at once be stopped, and some other mydriatic substituted. For this purpose a $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. solution of Duboisin, or a 5 per cent. solution of Hyoscyamine, should be tried with caution. I have found that patients who cannot tolerate atropine, are in some cases also unable to withstand the action of these agents, although as a rule these are less irritating than atropine. The second indication for treatment of iritis is to **relieve pain and congestion.** One of the best methods we possess of doing this is by the alternate application of moist and dry heat. For this purpose, let the eye be bathed every few hours with hot water, and then apply a large pad of hot dry cotton wool to the closed eyelids and keep it there until the next fomentation. The wool is easily made hot by contact with the outside of a can of boiling water. The dry hot wool alone is also very comforting, and beneficial. The atropine which has been used for dilating the pupil is also a

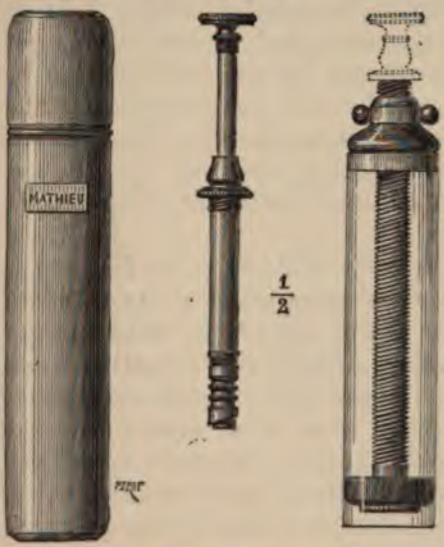

FIG. 39.—Heurteloup's Leech.

sedative, and will help to relieve the pain. The use of several leeches applied to the malar eminence, or to the side of the nose, or the application of Heurtleloop's artificial leech to the temple, often gives relief. **Heurtleloup's artificial leech** consists of a sharp cylindrical drill, and a glass exhausting-tube with an air-tight piston (see fig. 39). The drill can be set at any depth by means of a screw. It is applied to the temple, the hair having been previously shaved off from a space sufficiently large to accommodate the end of the cylinder. The blade being set at a depth sufficient to penetrate the skin, is firmly applied to the temple, and the incision made by rotating the upper knob; this done, and the cutter being withdrawn, the exhaustion is effected by gradually rotating the two lower knobs. The cylinder holds about an ounce of blood, and ought to fill in the course of five minutes. Light should be excluded from the eye for about twelve hours after the use of the artificial leech. Alcoholic stimulants of all kinds should be avoided during iritis.

Another important aid in the relief of pain and congestion is the operation of **paracentesis of the anterior chamber** (see p. 87). This simple proceeding will often give immediate relief when other methods are only partially successful. It is never attended by bad results, and its value should not be overlooked, especially when other means have failed, and the aqueous humour is turbid. After the operation has been performed, the wound should be prevented from healing for a few days, by the introduction of a small blunt probe (fig. 28) between the lips of the wound.

General Treatment is also of great importance. Sleep and relief from pain may often be procured by the use of opium or chloral internally, or by the hypodermic injection of morphia. When *Syphilis* is found to be the cause of the iritis, the general disease must be rigorously treated in addition to the local affection. Mercury (F. 35, 36, or 37) should be given twice or three times daily until the gums are slightly red and tender, and then by reducing the dose this condition, just short of salivation, should be kept up until all symptoms of the general disease have disappeared.

In the rheumatic form the iodide of potassium, and other remedies suitable for the general disease, will be found to alleviate the inflammation of the iris.

By the combination of these local and general remedies it will usually be found that iritis, when treated at an early stage, will progress favourably, and leave no trace of its existence.

One or two **precautions in treatment** are necessary; thus in iritis serosa, if the tension of the globe becomes much increased the use of atropine must be discontinued, and either replaced by a ½ per cent. solution of eserine, by paracentesis, or iridectomy.

In iritis resulting from injury, when seen in the early stage the continuous application of cold to the closed eyelids, by means of lint dipped in iced water, is the best means of allaying inflammation; this should be combined with the use of atropine, and the application of leeches.

In certain cases, however, the most judicious local and internal treatment fails to cure the disease; the symptoms may become somewhat abated, but will, nevertheless, continue week after week, constituting a state of **chronic iritis.** Under these circumstances the most reliable remedy is iridectomy. It is difficult to lay down any precise rule as to the exact period at which this operation should be performed. Each case must be judged upon its own merits. My rule is to desist as long as the case appears to progress favourably, but should the pupil continue sluggish or fixed, the iris discoloured, the aqueous turbid, the circumcorneal zone injected, and especially should the tension of the eye increase, I do not hesitate to perform iridectomy upwards. This is usually followed by great relief of pain, and diminution of other inflammatory symptoms.

When **posterior synechiæ** have formed, the number and extent of the adhesions will be shown by the effect of a 1 per cent. solution of atropine dropped into the palpebral aperture. If only one or two points of attachment exist, they may be left alone and disregarded, so long as the eye remains quiet; but should they be found to cause **recurrent inflammatory attacks** something must be done in the way of operative procedure. By most ophthalmic surgeons such cases are treated by iridectomy, but some operators prefer to detach the adherent portion of the iris from the capsule of the lens. This may be done, either by the method of Passavant, or by that of Streatfeild.

Passavant's method consists in making an incision in the periphery of that part of the cornea which is in front of the synechia, seizing with forceps and drawing outwards the attached portion of the iris; the internal margin of the iris being thus set free, it is released from the forceps and the latter withdrawn from the wound. In this method the capsule of the lens is not touched, so that it is not likely to be wounded by the forceps.

Streatfeild's method (Corelysis) consists in making a puncture in the cornea with a broad needle, on the side opposite to the principal adhesion, and then passing a Streatfeild's hooked spatula through the wound into the anterior chamber across the pupil, and between the iris and lens, taking care to direct the blunt end of the instrument away from the latter, and far enough beneath the iris to be able, by lateral movements and traction, to lift the iris away from the capsule, and so to break down the adhesion.

The after treatment of both these operations consists in the use of atropine, with a light pad and a bandage, keeping the eye closed for ten days.

When **extensive synechiæ**, or **total posterior synechia**, with or without **occlusion of the pupil**, are found to exist during or after an attack of iritis, their presence must be regarded as antagonistic to the welfare of the eye. By the dragging and limited movement thus imposed upon the iris, and by the obstruction constantly offered to the circulation of the intraocular fluids through their ordinary channel, the pupil, they are sure at some time to set up further trouble. This may appear in the form of recurrent inflammation, which often extends from the iris to the ciliary body and the choroid, or it may manifest itself by increased tension of the globe, either with or without these inflammations. After this condition has existed for some time the periphery of the iris will be observed to bulge forwards, whilst its pupillary margin is bound down to the lens. This is caused by the pressure of the fluid which is pent up behind the iris. Every possible effort must therefore be made to remove these adhesions, and to establish the circulation of the aqueous humour through the pupil. In the first place, by the use of strong mydriatics, such as atropine, and by the treatment of constitutional symptoms, much breaking down and re-absorption of the plastic exudation may sometimes be accomplished. If these means fail to liberate the iris from its adhesive bonds, the next step is to perform a free **iridectomy** without further delay. This should be done whether chronic recurrent iritis be present or not. The position of the section of the iris must depend upon the condition of the pupil; if this be occluded, the iridectomy should be made downwards and inwards, so as to give an artificial pupil; if the pupil be tolerably clear, the section may be made upwards. Von Graefe found this operation to be of the greatest service, not only in the reduction of inflammation and intraocular tension, but in the improvement of vision, and in the prevention of recurrent attacks. His experience has been fully confirmed by others, and his practice is now generally adopted, with the best results.

When iritis becomes **suppurative** the internal use of tonics, as bark and ammonia, with good food and fresh air, is advisable. The use of mercury, blood-letting, and other lowering remedies, is to be avoided. Locally, warm fomentations or poultices to the eyelids are of use; and should the pus be copious, or the eye painful, paracentesis of the anterior chamber will be found to give great relief. The section should be made below (see p. 87), and the wound kept open by the use of a fine probe (fig. 28), for a few days.

Cyclitis.—Inflammation of the ciliary body is rarely found to exist without a similar condition of either the iris or the choroid, or both.

When cyclitis is present, we find intense injection of the vessels in the circumcorneal zone of the sclerotic and episcleral tissues. The aqueous humour is turbid, and presents flocculi of lymph; sometimes flakes of pus, and even of blood, may be seen in the anterior chamber. On making slight digital pressure through the closed eyelids, we find the ciliary region to be intensely tender. The vision is always impaired. If we try to explore the fundus oculi by means of the ophthalmoscope, after dilatation of the pupil by atropine, it is impossible to gain any definite outline of the optic disc, or of the vessels of the retina. This obscurity is due in the first place to the turbidity of the aqueous already mentioned, and secondly to a similar condition of the vitreous, in which floating opacities can often be seen. After cyclitis has existed for some time the sclerotic becomes thinned, and allows the dark colour of the ciliary body to be seen through it, whilst, owing to the diminished resistance which it offers to the intraocular pressure, it sometimes bulges, forming a ciliary staphyloma, and the globe becomes softened.

The appearance of the healthy choroid must be carefully studied before we can properly appreciate the localised inflammatory and other changes which occur in the course of the diseases of that part of the eye.

We have seen (p. 119) that the choroid consists from within outwards of six layers of structure, which, for convenience of description, are called (1) the uvea, (2) the lamina vitrea, (3) the chorio-capillaris, (4) the elastic layer of Sattler, (5) the layer of larger vessels with the lamina supra-choroidea, and (6) the lamina fusca.

Now *the colour of the fundus* oculi, which is seen by reflected light when we use the ophthalmoscope, is due to two chief causes, viz.: the *blood* contained in the chorio-capillaris, and the *pigment* granules contained in the cells of the uvea, and of the interstices of the chorio-capillaris, the vascular layer, and the lamina fusca.

When this pigment is altogether absent, as in the case of *albinos*, we get a light yellowish-red colour, reflected from the blood within the capillaries; whilst the interstices between the latter are seen to be of a lighter, almost white, appearance, owing to the reflection from the sclerotic beyond the lamina fusca, and thus a fairly well defined outline of the choroidal vessels is obtained.

In fair persons, where the pigment granules contained within the cells are only of a faintly brown colour, the fundus has a yellowish-red colour, and the vessels of the choroid can often be seen, although less distinctly than in albinos.

In moderately *dark persons* this pigment becomes of a deeper brown, and the fundus presents a light brownish-red colour, no choroidal vessels being seen (see figs. 1 and 2, on the opposite page). In very dark persons the brown tint becomes more predominant, at the expense of the yellowish-red.

In negroes, and all *dark races*, the pigment is so abundant

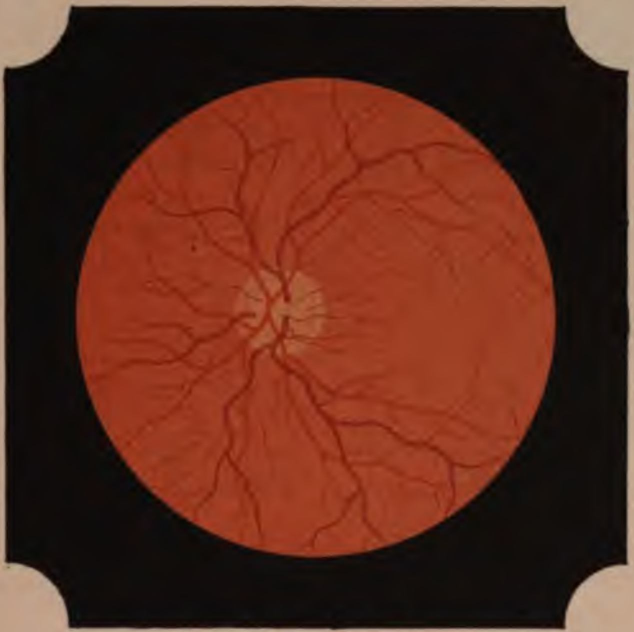

Fig. 1. Normal fundus.

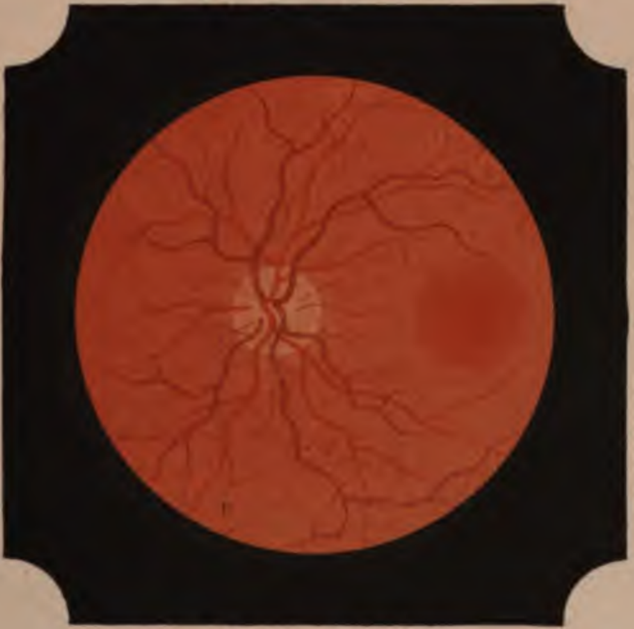

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Fig. 2. Normal fundus.

as to prevent the appearance of almost all red reflex from the choroid, the fundus assuming a brownish-grey, or even slate colour.

The colour of the fundus varies very much with the intensity and colour of the light used, and with the state of dilatation of the pupil. It is brighter, *cœteris paribus*, in proportion to the number of rays of light that can be thrown into the eye.

Choroiditis.—Inflammation of the choroid may be general, or it may be more or less localised.

General chroroiditis may be serous, plastic, or purulent.

In serous choroiditis the objective *symptoms* are not greatly marked; there is usually slight redness of the circumcorneal zone, and frequently a finely dotted appearance at the back of the cornea—'keratitis punctata.' Both the aqueous and the vitreous humours are slightly turbid, so that the papilla and retinal vessels cannot be distinctly seen, but present a hazy appearance, simulating papillitis, or neuro-retinitis. If, however, the case were one of simple neuritis, or neuro-retinitis, the media remaining clear, we should be able at least to see the peripheral portions of the retinal vessels, whereas in serous choroiditis the whole fundus is hazy.

Again, in this disease if we use a plane mirror, having a convex lens behind its sight-hole, to illuminate the fundus, and direct the patient to look alternately upwards and then back to the mirror, we can perceive the presence of numerous floating opacities in the vitreous, which do not present themselves in optic neuritis. Vision is impaired in proportion to the opacity of the media. This affection is usually associated with some constitutional dyscrasia, as syphilis, rheumatism, or gout. As we shall presently see, it may mark the onset of sympathetic ophthalmitis; in fact, it appears to be due to the same causes as serous iritis.

The tension of the globe is usually normal at the commencement, but it often becomes afterwards increased, and the case may be mistaken for glaucoma. (*See* Glaucoma.)

Treatment must first be directed to any existing constitutional dyscrasia, the eyes being kept in a state of rest, and shaded from the light. Should the tension of the globe become increased, paracentesis of the anterior chamber (see p. 87) is advisable. This operation is often of great use in reducing pain, which may be considerable, and in retarding the progress of the inflammation; it may in some cases be repeated several times at intervals of two or three days, with benefit. Should the paracentesis prove insufficient to reduce the tension and to relieve the intraocular trouble, iridectomy should be performed upwards.

Plastic choroiditis, when general, is accompanied by symptoms of violent inflammation. There is intense redness of the circumcorneal zone of vessels, and more or less chemosis of the ocular conjunctiva. The aqueous humour is turbid, and may contain pus or even blood. The vitreous is also found to be even more cloudy than the aqueous, so that no detail of the fundus can be made out with the ophthalmoscope; in fact, in many cases not even the red reflex from the choroid can be obtained. Sometimes the opacity is almost confined to the vitreous humour. The iris and the ciliary body usually participate in this inflammation. Vision is, of course, gravely interfered with, and may only amount to bare perception of light. There is often severe pain in and around the globe.

The disease is most serious from its onset; masses of exudation are thrown out, causing detachment of the retina. The inflammation usually goes on from bad to worse, causing disorganisation, and final softening of the globe, and leaving the patient without even perception of light. This affection mostly occurs in young children; sometimes as a complication in some severe illness, as meningitis. In adults it also usually dates from some severe malady, where there may have been grave meningeal or cerebral lesions; but it may come on spontaneously, and without any assignable cause. In young children it sometimes attacks only the parts posterior to the crystalline lens, and by a more or less circumscribed exudation beneath the retina, causes this to bulge forwards as a yellowish-white mass, which can be seen by the oblique focal illumination, and by the ophthalmoscope, to project into the vitreous chamber. It has a yellowish or yellowish-white colour, and may easily be mistaken for glioma. To this condition the term **Pseudoglioma** is often applied. The points of distinction between these will be found under the head of Glioma.

Treatment is unfortunately of but little service in these conditions. Local depletion, as by leeches, may be useful in the early stages, but as a rule the eye is doomed to a disorganised condition of the structures essential to vision.

In purulent choroiditis, *the symptoms* from the first are those of intense inflammation. The conjunctiva and subconjunctival tissues are densely infiltrated with serum, so that the cornea is partly covered in by the swollen tissues. The eyelids, also, are red and swollen, so much so that were it not for the absence of discharge the case might be considered to be one of purulent conjunctivitis. The iris is changed in colour, and becomes muddy in appearance, the pupil fixed, and the cornea hazy and anæsthetic. The globe of the eye appears swollen and pushed forwards, it is hard to the touch, and extremely painful on pressure. There is excessive pain, at first in the eye, and afterwards in and around the orbit. Vision is of course soon diminished, and finally lost altogether. Pus forms in the anterior chamber, and is accompanied by general pyrexia.

The causes of purulent choroiditis are various. It may follow a perforating wound, whether caused by an accident or operation, e.g. that of cataract extraction, or it may be caused by the entry of a foreign body. It may be caused by extension of inflammation from the cornea and iris, as in perforating and serpiginous ulcers of the cornea with hypopyon. It sometimes occurs in typhoid and puerperal fevers. Occasionally it is seen as a metastatic phenomenon in amputations, and other states where, owing to septicæmia, thromboses are liable to occur. In some cases, however, the cause of this affection is difficult to trace.

The treatment is here again but a sorry undertaking. Local leeching, hot fomentations and poultices, combined with morphia, either hypodermically or otherwise administered, are very useful in allaying pain. As soon as pus is evidently accumulating in or behind the aqueous chamber, prompt surgical interference is indicated. If the eye be left to itself there is considerable risk of the inflammation extending backwards along the optic nerve to the brain and its membranes, and so causing a fatal termination. Excision of the globe is in my opinion the best and safest way of treating this severe condition. Some surgeons, however, are doubtful as to the propriety of removing an eye whilst in this inflamed and suppurating condition, and prefer first to make an incision through the anterior part of the globe so as to relieve pain, tension, &c., and to postpone the excision until the inflammatory symptoms have subsided.

Disseminated choroiditis.—*The symptoms* which first induce the patient to seek advice are various; there may be muscæ volitantes, defective vision, or pain in the eyes. On ophthalmoscopic examination we find one or more patches distributed over the fundus, either towards the periphery, or nearer the central region. These patches vary considerably in size, shape, and colour. The recent ones have a yellowish-red appearance, and differ but little from the rest of the fundus; in fact, without a careful examination by the direct method, they may easily escape notice. When more advanced, they become whitish-yellow; and still later we find them to be quite white, and glistening with little aggregations of pigment attached to their edges or in some part of the area. Sometimes they become confluent, and form large tracts of atrophy, in which only white cicatricial tissue and aggregations of pigment can be seen.

Figures 1 and 2, on the opposite page, represent a typical case of this kind. They were drawn from a case which is still under my care at the Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital. Both fundi are affected; in the right eye, however (fig. 2), the disease is more advanced than the left, and has become confluent in the yellow spot region.

Both the visual acuity and the visual field are affected in proportion to the extent of the disease, and the part of the fundus attacked.

In many cases the vitreous humour is also found to be more or less affected. This shows itself more especially when the disease can be directly traced to syphilis. Förster[1] is of opinion that these deserve a separate classification, and designates them **syphilitic choroido-retinitis.** The vitreous affection is indicated by the presence of opacities; these may be very fine ('dust-like'), and only to be observed by careful examination; they may be confined to the posterior part of the vitreous, and so give a hazy outline to the optic disc and the yellow spot region; or they may consist of larger opacities occupying the

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[1] *Archiv für Ophthalm.*, vol. xx., part i.

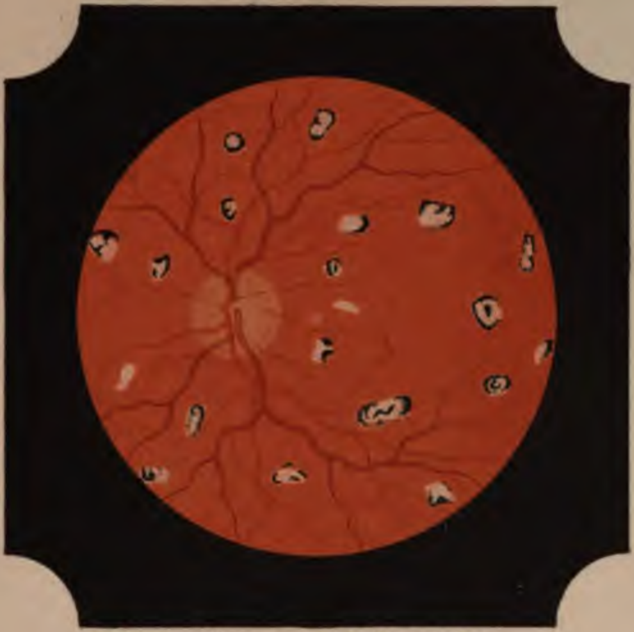

Fig. 1. Disseminated Choroiditis.

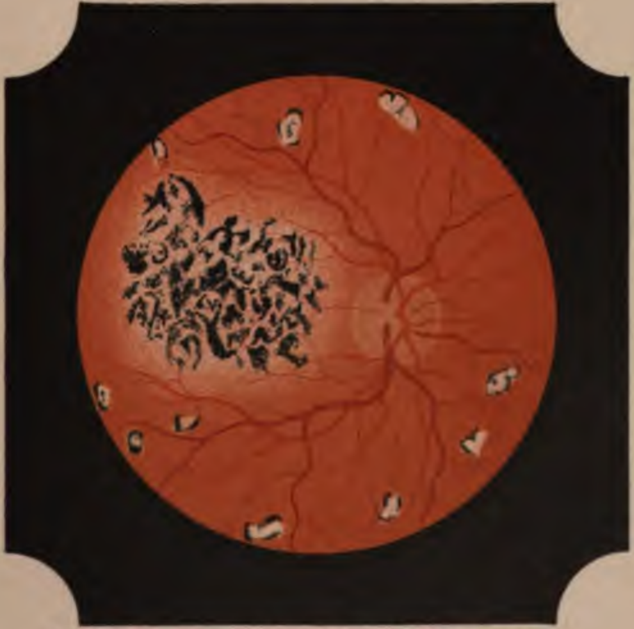

Fig. 2. Disseminated and central choroiditis.

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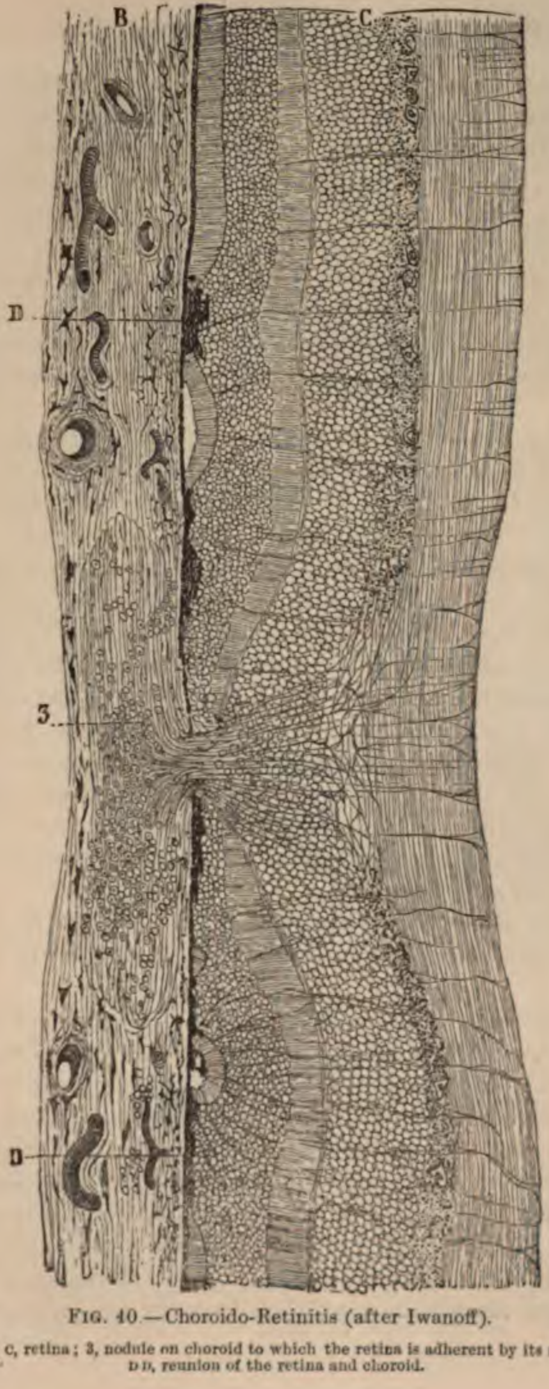

FIG. 40.—Choroido-Retinitis (after Iwanoff).

B, choroid; C, retina; 3, nodule on choroid to which the retina is adherent by its radial fibres; D D, reunion of the retina and choroid.

entire vitreous, which sometimes render any view of the fundus impossible. When the vitreous haze is present, the vision is greatly impaired, and the sensibility of the retina is very obtuse. Patients suffering from syphilitic choroido-retinitis require a bright light in order to see at all well. In dull illumination the vision is extremely bad.

The cause of disseminated choroiditis is often obscure. It is, as we have just remarked, frequently traceable to syphilis, either acquired or inherited. It is sometimes associated with rheumatism and gout. It is not uncommon in progressive myopia.

Pathology.—When a recent patch of this affection is examined microscopically, we find a cluster of round and fusiform cells in the region of the lamina vitrea and the choriocapillaris. The pigment layer is then unaffected. As the disease progresses, the cells of the pigment layer begin to proliferate, and the part which is immediately opposite to the patch becomes absorbed, giving it a white appearance; the pigment becomes accumulated at the edges of the patch, and the inflammation extends to the layer of rods and cones, and the outer granular layer of the retina. Later on, this inflammatory deposit becomes absorbed, and gives place to cicatricial tissue; but the structures involved, viz. the outer granular layer, the rods and cones, the uveal tract, and the vessels of the choroid are found to be destroyed, and their place occupied by this new cicatricial tissue.

Figure 40 represents a section of the choroid thus affected. At the point 3, cicatricial contraction is seen to be well advanced.

Treatment.—When seen early these cases are often benefited by the internal use of mercury; in fact, by this treatment the patches will sometimes disappear. During the active stage of the disease the eye should be rested, and shaded from all bright light. When the disease has become stationary, and the patches are white and atrophic, nothing can be done; but should the vision continue to decrease, or fresh failures occur, the eyes should still be protected and rested, and a long course of mercury and iodide of potassium given internally.

Central choroiditis only differs from the disseminated forms in its clinical features. In this affection the inflammatory lesion is limited to the yellow spot region of the fundus. As in the former case, we have first the exudation of plastic matter in the region of the lamina vitrea, giving a yellowish-white appearance ; next there is proliferation and absorption of the central portions of the pigment of the uveal tract, giving a white appearance to the centre of the patch, with masses of pigment scattered irregularly around its edges. Finally, re-absorption of the exudation, with destruction of the proper tissue of the choroid, and of the outer granules, and the rods and cones of the retina.

The symptoms of central choroiditis are peculiar from the first. In addition to the exudative or atrophic patch at the yellow spot which may be seen with the ophthalmoscope, we find the patient at first complaining that objects seem to be contorted. Not unfrequently they appear to be diminished (micropsia) and distorted ; this is more especially marked when the accommodation is paralysed, and when one eye only is affected. The micropsia and distortion are caused by the displacement of the cones ; if these are pressed asunder by inflammatory effusion, a retinal image covers fewer cones than if these were in their normal position, hence an object appears smaller. Unless the case is quickly and properly treated, the central vision undergoes rapid derangement. The patient sees a grey patch upon the book or work before him which moves about as he moves the eye ; this patch becomes darker and darker, until finally all central vision is lost. The scotoma will of course vary with the extent of the area of atrophy in the choroid, but the patient will be quite unable to read small type, and can only make out large objects by so deviating the eyes that images may fall upon the peripheral parts of the retina. The causes and treatment are the same as for disseminated choroiditis.

Myopic Crescent is an atrophied condition of the choroid at the posterior pole of the eye. It is similar in microscopic character to the atrophied patches already described in choroiditis disseminata, but appears to have little or no cicatrical tissue. It is sometimes congenital ; its occurrence is common in myopia, more especially in cases of high degree. Occasionally it occurs in emmetropic, and even in hypermetropic, eyes. It usually appears in the form of a crescent situated at the outer side of the optic disc; the concavity of the crescent coinciding with the edge of the disc, whilst its convexity projects towards the yellow spot (see fig. 1, on the opposite page). It varies in size, from a very narrow rim to an area equal to several times that of the optic disc, round which it occasionally forms a complete ring. When there is bulging backwards of the sclerotic at the posterior pole of the eye in addition to the atrophy of the choroid, the term **posterior staphyloma** is used. This is the result of *posterior sclerotico-choroiditis.* Sometimes it remains quite stationary, but it is frequently progressive. In the latter case the bulging backwards at the posterior pole goes on increasing, as well as the inflammatory change in the choroid at the outer edge of the crescent. We can often see the effects of successive outbreaks of the disease by the appearance of the staphyloma, which then presents several secondary crescentic edges, each being less white than the first.

The subjects of these changes at the posterior pole of the eye are sometimes able to see very well when the proper correcting glass is used. When, however, there is a posterior staphyloma, and especially when this is progressive, the vision is almost invariably diminished to a great extent. When the yellow spot is actually involved, we of course find that all central vision is lost. The patient can then only see large objects, and to effect this he is obliged to rotate the head or the eyes to one side, so that rays from the object may fall on the peripheral parts of the retina. During the course of a progressive posterior staphyloma, which is usually very slow, it is not uncommon to find hyperæmia of the papilla, and even small hæmorrhages at the edge of the staphyloma.

The treatment of myopic crescent and progressive posterior staphyloma will be considered in the chapter devoted to the subject of *Refraction.*

Tubercle of the choroid occupies the region of the choriocapillaris and the vascular layer, and is quite behind the uvea. It is most commonly found in cases of acute miliary tuberculosis, but it may be present in all forms and stages of tubercular disease.

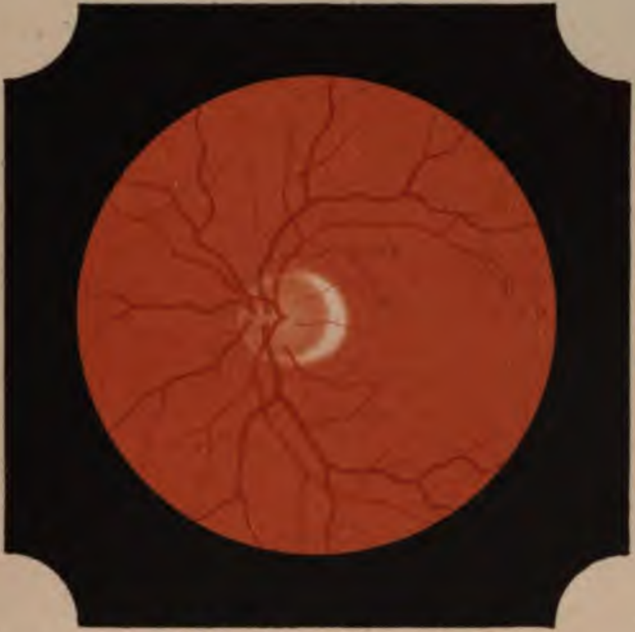

Fig. 1. Myopic Crescent.

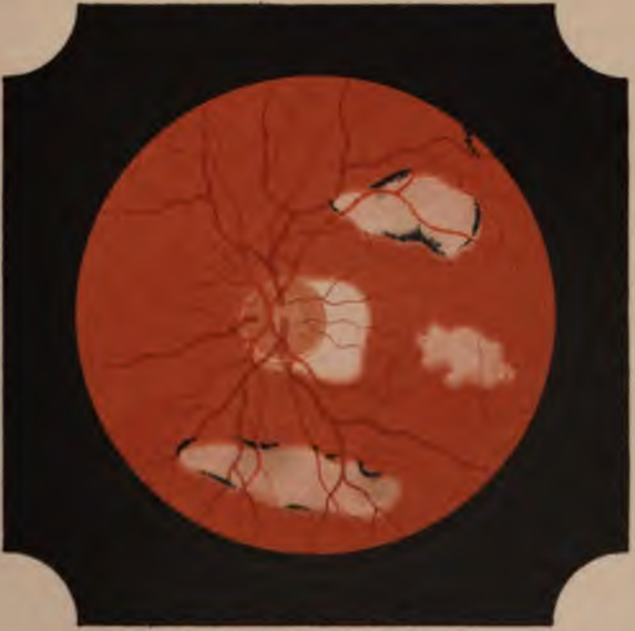

Fig. 2. Posterior staphyloma.
Patches of atrophy following choroiditis.

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When seen with the ophthalmoscope, it appears as a greyish hemispherical eminence, varying from one to three millimètres in diameter. One or several of these first appear in the yellow spot region, and are afterwards followed by others in the surrounding neighbourhood. The youngest tubercles are very small; the oldest are the largest, and are somewhat white at the centre. They are distinguished from patches of choroidal atrophy in being more clearly defined, less brilliantly white, and in presenting no pigment masses around the edges.

In cases of acute tubercular disease where there are typhoid symptoms, and in tubercular meningitis where the diagnosis is not always easy, the detection of tubercles of the choroid is of great assistance in clearing up the case, although the absence of choroidal tubercle does not prove the absence of tubercular disease in other organs.

Rupture of the choroid is always the result of external violence, such as a blow, a kick, or a fall, in which the eye is struck with great force, causing sudden change of form. The accident is usually followed by hæmorrhage into the vicinity of the wound, causing opacity of the vitreous. This at first prevents the choroidal lesion from being seen with the ophthalmoscope; after a few days, however, as the blood becomes absorbed, we can see a whitish line in the fundus, immediately opposite to that part of the globe which received the blow. There is usually a little blood clinging to the edges of the rupture for some time after the latter is visible, but finally the rupture appears as a permanent white or yellowish-white line, which is usually curved in a direction concentric with the edge of disc, but occasionally it runs obliquely. Fig. 2, opposite p. 186, shows a drawing which I made from a boy æt. 14, who had received a blow on his eye from a stick.

Sympathetic Irritation and Sympathetic Ophthalmitis.

These terms are applied to certain affections which are set up in one eye in consequence of some organic lesions of its fellow on the opposite side. The eye which is first affected is usually spoken of as the *exciting eye*, whilst the second is called the *sympathising eye*.

In the exciting eye there is almost always a history of an injury at some time or other. In the majority of cases this has been a penetrating, incised, lacerated, or contused wound of the ciliary region. It sometimes happens that the wound produced by a blow is subconjunctival, and so may escape the notice of the surgeon.

The presence of a foreign body lodged within any part of the globe, such as a shot or a chip of metal, is, if not removed, very likely to cause disorganisation of the injured eye and a very probable forerunner of sympathetic trouble in the other.

Wounds of the cornea which do not extend to the ciliary region, have of themselves little tendency to set up sympathetic inflammation; but should they be attended by dislocation of the crystalline lens, or by the formation of anterior synechia, these lesions are very liable to produce it.

In the case of spontaneous inflammation of one eye, followed by similar symptoms in the other—as, for example, chronic irido-choroiditis, ciliary staphyloma, glaucoma, &c.—it is difficult or impossible to prove that the affection of the second eye is due to an extension of the disease from the first, and not to a common cause. An eye, however, which is shrunken and disorganised is very liable to take on an inflammatory condition which may cause irritative symptoms in its fellow, and such an eye should therefore always be regarded with suspicion, especially when the other eye is in any way irritable, or inflamed without apparent cause.

Condition of the exciting eye.—In the majority of cases where a wound of the ciliary region is followed by such a condition as to set up sympathetic inflammation, we find the presence of **plastic inflammation** of the iris, the ciliary body, and the choroid (irido-cyclo-choroiditis). During the first week after the infliction of the wound a violent reaction is set up, in which there is intense pain, in the eye, orbit, and the surrounding temporal, frontal, and malar regions. There is marked congestion of the circumcorneal zone of vessels, and the ciliary region is tender when digital pressure is made through the closed eyelids. There is great intolerance of light and overflowing of tears. The vision is much impaired. These symptoms are succeeded by those of chronic irido-cyclitis. The iris becomes extensively adherent to the capsule of the lens, it is changed in colour, and the pupil may be occluded with organised lymph. The vitreous, when the pupil is not occluded, is found to be so hazy, and crowded with opacities, as to prevent the retina and choroid from being seen with the ophthalmoscope. If the lens has been wounded in the accident, it of course becomes swollen and opaque. Upon section and microscopic examination of an eye in this condition of traumatic irido-cyclitis, from five to ten days after the infliction of the wound, we find evidence of severe plastic inflammation in the iris, ciliary body, and choroid. **The iris** is thickened by infiltration with lymphoid cells, which are arranged in clusters. These first appear in the middle strata, and then coalesce, and extend to all the tissue of the iris. The blood-vessels appear to be blocked by white corpuscles, and their walls are thick and translucent. The pigment layer at the back of the iris is altered in appearance, its cells having undergone proliferation, it is less dark in colour, and there is a thick deposit of lymphoid cells on its posterior surface. **The ciliary body** is similarly affected. Clusters of cells first appear on the inner surface of the ciliary muscle; these increase and coalesce until they occupy the entire part between the muscle and the pigment layer. The pigment layer again is much altered, and only appears as an irregularly scattered line in the midst of lymphoid cells. The fibres of the ciliary muscle are not much infiltrated. The pars ciliaris retinæ is but little altered, except that it is separated from the basement membrane by exudation. **The choroid** also shows clusters of leucocytes, first appearing in the middle or vascular layer, which multiply, coalesce, and finally occupy its whole extent. Its thickness may be increased eight or ten times. The blood-vessels are blocked with leucocytes, and are ultimately destroyed. The pigment layer is not affected. In the lymph spaces around the blood-vessels of the retina, clusters of lymphoid cells are also sometimes seen. Similar cells are also found in the intersheath space, and around the vessels of the optic nerve.

Septic bacteria can often be found in eyes which have been enucleated. Snellen has traced these along the optic nerve sheath, and believes that they are concerned in the production of sympathetic inflammation.

In some cases the active inflammatory changes in the exciting eye as above described are much less marked.

Symptoms and pathology of the sympathising eye.—It is important to distinguish between *irritation* and *inflammation* of this eye.

By sympathetic irritation is meant a functional derangement only. It is characterised by intolerance of light, lachrymation, and inability to use the eye for reading or work for more than a short period without a sense of fatigue. The vision may be normal, but is sometimes impaired. There are sometimes temporary sensations of darkness (obscurations) which last for several seconds. There may be considerable neuralgic pains in and around the eye. No physical signs of inflammation can be detected, either with the oblique focal illumination or with the ophthalmoscope. Sympathetic irritation frequently precedes inflammation, but it may exist for weeks, months, or even years before the inflammation of the eye supervenes. It is not a necessary forerunner of sympathetic inflammation, inasmuch as the latter often comes on without any symptom of irritation; on the other hand, it often subsides and is not followed by sympathetic inflammation. The excision of the exciting eye usually causes speedy removal of the symptoms of irritation.

Sympathetic ophthalmitis may, as we have just seen, be ushered in by irritation, but it may come on in the most insidious manner, without pain, photophobia, or lachrymation; it usually commences as a *serous iritis*, the inflammation thence extending to the ciliary body, and the choroid. The symptoms of this early stage are easily overlooked, but when carefully examined the pupil is found to be sluggish, the vision more or less impaired, the vitreous hazy so as to prevent a clear view of the retina and choroid. Floating opacities of the vitreous are often present. Dots of opacity on the back of the cornea can usually be seen as soon as this disease has fully set in. These are sometimes extremely minute, and then can only be seen by using a magnifying lens with the oblique focal illumination (p. 70). The dots are either scattered irregularly over the surface, or they assume a triangular arrangement, the apex of which is opposite to the pupil, and the base either below or on one side. This serous inflammation may continue as such throughout the whole course of the disease, or it may at any time assume the more severe plastic form. In the majority of cases of long-standing sympathetic disease, we find both the clinical and anatomical characters of *severe plastic inflammation of the whole uveal tract.* The iris looks thick and fleshy, and is changed to a buff or brownish-yellow colour. Its blood-vessels become large and visible. The pupil may be blocked by lymph. The vitreous, when visible, is found to be hazy, and to contain floating opacities. The zone of vessels around the cornea is intensely congested. There is sometimes intense neuralgic pain in the regions supplied by the fifth nerve.

The interval of time between the injury of the exciting eye and the onset of inflammation in the sympathising eye is very variable. It is seldom less than three weeks. The usual period is from eight to twelve weeks, but cases not unfrequently occur after a much longer period, even many years from the date of the original injury or disease.

The mode of production of sympathetic disease has yet to be explained. The oldest theory, which goes by the name of Mackenzie's, is that the inflammation spreads to the sympathising eye along the optic nerve and chiasma. More recently it has been held that the ciliary nerves formed the conducting paths, the inflammation being conveyed to a centre of the ciliary nerves of the injured eye, and thence reflected down the ciliary nerves of the other eye, or else that the vaso-motor centre was acted upon in such a way as to interfere with the nutrition of the other eye. Pathological proof in support of this theory is wanting; the material, however, is not plentiful, and it would be easy to overlook morbid changes in nerves so minute and numerous as are the ciliary nerves. A more powerful argument against the reflex production of sympathetic ophthalmitis lies in the fact that true inflammation has never been produced experimentally by irritation of a nerve.

Recent observations and experiments have proved that the space between the dural and pial sheaths of the optic nerve, and the lymph sheaths surrounding the arteries of the retina and of the optic nerve, are often occupied by a number of lymphoid cells, similar in nature to those which are so abundant in the uveal tracts of the eyes affected. This fact has led to the theory that it is along these lymphatic spaces that the morbid process extends to the second eye; the chain of evidence is, however, incomplete, for it has not been proved that the chiasma is affected; while the fact that in some of the cases examined the changes have become less marked in each nerve as the chiasma was approached, renders it quite possible that the change observed indicated a morbid process extending backwards from *each* eye. The known facts about the occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmitis are hardly yet sufficient to establish a theory as to its mode of transmission; before this can be done more data must be collected as to the essential nature of the injury which gives rise to it, the shortest interval that can elapse between the receipt of the injury and the appearance of symptoms in the other eye, and, above all, as to the exact nature of the morbid changes in all the possible paths in *both* eyes.

Prevention and Treatment.—The exciting eye should be carefully treated, and every effort made to allay inflammation in this, as well as to prevent irritation or inflammation in that of the opposite side. The patient must be warned of the possible danger to the opposite eye, which should be shaded from light, and kept at rest, not only during the attack, but for several weeks after the inflammation of the exciting eye has apparently subsided.

When the exciting eye is evidently rendered useless, either by the wound or by the consequent inflammation, that is, when its vision has quite gone, or only amounts to perception of light, and when there is no probability that its sight will improve, it should be immediately excised. The necessity for its immediate removal is still more urgent when it is giving rise to irritation or to inflammation in the opposite eye.

When the exciting eye, although damaged, is still in the possession of useful vision, or if there is hope of such being restored to it, the question as to whether it should be removed or not becomes most difficult to decide.

If the sympathising eye is only suffering from irritation, and presents no symptom of inflammation, the removal of the exciting eye is usually attended by immediate relief of the irritation, and no symptoms of inflammation are likely to appear; whilst, as we have just seen, the danger of inflammation is very great if the eye is not removed. It therefore becomes a most important and urgent matter to decide whether it is not better to sustain the loss of the eye which is already partially disabled, than to incur the risk of loss of sight to the sympathising eye. Careful consideration of the bearings of the case is necessary in accidents of this kind, which in practice are liable to occur at any moment. A decision having been arrived at, the patient and his friends should be clearly and forcibly warned of the danger to which the sympathising eye is exposed by further retention of the injured eye.

If sympathetic inflammation has already commenced in the second eye, although it may only be of the serous type, then the exciting eye should be preserved; its removal at this late period is not likely to stop the disease in the other eye; in fact, the sympathising eye may become so affected by the progress of the disease that the exciting eye may ultimately prove to possess the better vision of the two. When it is decided to preserve the exciting eye, this should be carefully treated in the manner recommended for plastic iritis, light being carefully excluded from both eyes.

The sympathising eye must be treated in the same way as a case of severe plastic iritis (p. 128), that is, with complete rest, exclusion of light, the alternate application of moist and dry warmth, atropine, and leeches, if necessary. In no case, however, must any operative interference, as iridectomy, be attempted, as the aperture caused by the excision of the iris would immediately become filled up by the same exudation as has been thrown out elsewhere. Tonics are to be administered internally. Mercurials are given by some surgeons; but unless constitutional syphilis is suspected, I should hesitate before adopting this treatment.

Operative treatment of either the exciting or the sympathising eye must not be commenced until all inflammatory symptoms have entirely passed away.

The condition of the sympathising eye after the inflammation has subsided is generally very bad. In the mildest cases there are usually extensive posterior synechiæ, but the pupil may remain sufficiently clear to allow of some useful vision. The fixed position of the iris, however, is likely to lead to future inflammatory trouble in the eye, the risk of which would be diminished by the removal of a portion of the adherent iris by the operation of iridectomy upwards. In other cases, the layer of plastic exudation between the iris and the lens capsule is more excessive, and extends to the area of the pupil, which is quite occluded.

The crystalline lens also is frequently involved, and is found to be more or less opaque. Here, of course, the vision is greatly impaired and may amount to perception of light only. An attempt to restore the sight may be commenced by the performance of iridectomy in the upward direction. The operation is by no means easy to perform, owing to the toughness of the adhesions and the rottenness of the iris tissue. If an artificial pupil can be thus made, and the lens substance is found to be transparent, no further proceeding is at present necessary. Should the lens be found to be opaque, an attempt must be made to extract it through the wound already made for the iridectomy. Its removal is usually attended with difficulty, owing to the extensive iritic adhesions. These may sometimes be more or less detached by means of a Streatfeild's hook; and even then it is usually necessary to use the scoop in order to get the lens away from its incarcerated capsule. After the recovery from the iridectomy or the extraction of the lens, the vision may sometimes be still more improved by iridotomy (see p. 162).

Tumours of the Tunica Vasculosa.—Gumma occasionally occurs during the secondary stage of constitutional syphilis. It may attack either portion of the tunica vasculosa, and it may be single or multiple.

Gumma of the iris appears in the form of one or several nodules, which may be clearly seen through the cornea. The inflammatory deposit first commences in the connective tissue of the middle strata of the iris and causes a slight change of colour only; the swelling gradually increases until there is distinct bulging of the anterior surface. In light-coloured eyes these little hemispherical elevations are of a reddish-yellow colour; in dark ones they are more of a tan colour. Their diameter varies from 1 to 6 mm. When small, they may, under proper treatment, become absorbed and disappear; when large, they usually suppurate, causing hypopyon, and permanent alteration in the tissue of the iris.

GUMMATA **of the ciliary body** and of the **choroid** also occur, but their presence is usually attended by a hazy condition of the vitreous humour, which renders their diagnosis more difficult than gumma of the iris. The connective tissue of the middle part of both structures is first affected.

Miliary tubercle is sometimes seen in the iris and in the choroid. **Tubercle of the iris** occurs less frequently than gumma, but when present it occupies a similar position and presents a similar appearance to that affection, so much so that it is only by the collateral symptoms of the presence of constitutional syphilis, or tuberculosis, that a diagnosis can be correctly arrived at.

Tubercle of the choroid has been already described (see p. 142).

Sarcoma mostly attacks the choroid or the ciliary body; it hardly ever occurs primarily in the iris.

Sarcoma of the choroid and ciliary body usually commences in a manner so insidious as to be unnoticed even by the patient until the tumour has attained a considerable magnitude; even then it is sometimes discovered accidentally by the patient closing one eye and finding the vision of the affected eye diminished. Sometimes, however, the growth of sarcoma is accompanied by local pains, flashings of light, &c. It usually occurs during middle life or old age, being seldom seen before the age of thirty-five.

Symptoms.—When seen at an *early stage*, there may be nothing in the exterior of the eye to attract notice.

In addition to the dimness of sight which may have first caused the patient to apply for advice, we find that the visual field is deficient in some parts, and when it is examined by means of the perimeter, presents a scotoma corresponding to the position of the tumour. With the ophthalmoscope an outline of the tumour can sometimes be seen to form a rounded prominence, pushing the retina forwards into the vitreous cavity. It is, however, always a matter of difficulty to say whether this is due to a sarcomatous growth in the choroid, or to simple detachment from subretinal effusion. When due to sarcoma, the detached or bulging portion of the retina may retain some colour, it may occur at any part of the fundus, and it does not flap about when the eye is moved. In simple detachment, the detached portion has a bluish-white appearance; it usually occurs at the lower segment of the fundus, and it may flap about freely when the eye is moved. Occasionally a vascular network of the sarcomatous growth can be detected through the retina.

In the *advanced stage*, the presence of the tumour is accompanied by a distinct increase of the tension of the globe, and the eye presents other symptoms of glaucoma. The anterior ciliary vessels are congested; the cornea becomes dull in appearance and is more or less deprived of sensation. The anterior chamber gradually becomes shallow by the pressure from behind the iris. The iris is sometimes subacutely inflamed, and forms posterior adhesions to the capsule of the lens, which render the pupil irregular. Not unfrequently the iris is atrophied, and it may be detached at that part of its periphery which corresponds to the position of the tumour. The vitreous also is frequently rendered cloudy by the presence of numerous opacities. The vision has gradually become worse, and is now reduced to bare perception of light. When the disease has progressed to such an extent as to destroy vision, there is frequently considerable trouble from pain in the ciliary region and lachrymation, which are of a more severe character than those met with in true glaucoma.

Examination of the fundus with the ophthalmoscope is now rendered impossible by the opacity of the media; and the increased tension of the globe, together with the history of the symptoms and the general appearance of the eye, frequently render it a matter of difficulty to decide whether the case be one of sarcoma or true glaucoma. So much is this the case that it occasionally happens that the true state of the eye is not discovered until an operation for iridectomy has been attempted, and is found to be accompanied by escape of vitreous and by greater hæmorrhage than is usual in glaucoma.

Sarcoma of the choroid should always be suspected when an eye that has been losing sight, or quite blind for some time, is suddenly attacked by pain, congestion, and increased tension, or even if the tension be normal, while the other symptoms exist. In any case of extensive detachment of retina occurring in one eye only, and when there has been no myopia or history of a blow upon the eye, we must be cautious in prognosis. Sarcoma of the choroid is usually more or less pigmented (melanotic), and consists of spindle-shaped and round cells, such as are shown at fig. 2, opposite p. 108. These spindle cells are about $\frac{8}{1000}$ inch in diameter. They contain a large nucleus, surrounded by a hyaline substance (protoplasm), which tapers off at each end. The tumours are usually of firm consistence, they generally contain some blood-vessels, and sometimes are very vascular. They usually bulge towards the vitreous cavity in the manner represented in fig. 3, opposite p. 108, where the retina is seen to be pushed forwards in front of the tumour. Sometimes there is also effusion of serum or blood beneath the retina. They may increase so as to fill the whole globe and distend its walls before invading the extra-ocular tissues of the orbit; but in many cases the tissues outside the sclerotic are affected by the new growth, whilst the tumour within the globe is quite small; in these cases the cells pass to the outside by means of the sheaths of the blood-vessels, which are seen to be thickened and altered by the presence of cells similar in character to those of the tumour.

The state of tension of the globe is of importance, as it helps us to form some idea of the progress which the new growth may have made. Thus, if the tension has steadily increased to $+1$, $+2$, or $+3$, we infer that the sclerotic coat is still unaffected. If tension is reduced from $+1$, 2, or 3 to normal, this indicates that there may be thinning of this tunic. Should the tension be diminished to -1, -2, or -3, we know that the sclerotic has given way in one or more places, and so offers no further resistance to the intraocular fluids.

The neighbouring lymphatic glands are not affected, but secondary sarcoma is liable to be set up in distant parts of the body, the cells being conducted from this primary source by means of the blood current. The liver is the organ which is usually first affected in this way.

The period of duration of sarcoma of the choroid varies from a few months to several years.

The only intraocular tumour for which it might be mistaken is that of glioma, which we shall see only occurs in young children.

The *treatment* consists in the enucleation of the eye as soon as the disease is recognised.

In removing the eye it is well to take away 4 to 5 mm. of the optic nerve, and to examine the cut end of this after removal. If it should be found to be pigmented or thickened, as much of the remaining nerve as possible should be removed, as well as any other tissues that may be considered to be attacked by the new growth. Besides this removal with the scissors or knife, the treatment of the orbital contents by means of chloride of zinc paste should be rigorously carried out, as the only possible means of saving the life of the patient.

Congenital Affections of the Tunica Vasculosa.

Irideremia, or congenital absence of the iris, is occasionally met with. Sometimes the iris is not altogether absent, but is only represented by a mere rudimentary band of tissue, occupying the periphery of the anterior chamber. This affection is often accompanied by other defects of the eye, such as partial dislocation of the lens, cataract, nystagmus, and imperfect power of accommodation.

Coloboma iridis consists in a congenital cleft in the iris. It is usually directed downwards, or downwards and slightly inwards, and may easily be mistaken for the gap which is made by iridectomy. It varies in extent, and sometimes occurs in both eyes. It is generally accompanied by coloboma of the choroid.

Persistent remains of the pupillary membrane are sometimes found. This membrane is a fœtal structure, which closes the aperture of the pupil. Normally it disappears before birth. When persistent, it appears as one or more very slender threads extending across the pupil, and attached to the anterior surface of the iris. It can be best seen by the oblique focal illumination.

Coloboma of the choroid is a congenital deformity, which consists in the absence of a more or less considerable portion of this part of the tunica vasculosa at the lower and internal part of the globe. When examined by means of the ophthalmoscope, it appears of a bluish-white colour; a few small vessels are seen scattered over its area, and masses of pigment, varying in quantity, are sometimes present. The surface of the sclerotic often appears very irregular. The extent of the coloboma is variable; it usually extends from the edge of the optic disc nearly as far as the ciliary body. It may embrace the optic disc, in which case the latter is changed in appearance, and looks as if it were hyperæmic by contrast with the white area round it. It may occur in the yellow spot region; it is often accompanied by a coloboma of the iris. Occasionally it occurs in both eyes, but when unilateral the left eye is most commonly affected. There is of course a large scotoma in the visual field, corresponding to the extent of the coloboma, but otherwise the sight in some cases is fairly good.

Operations on the Iris.

Iridectomy consists in the excision of a portion of the iris. This operation, as is mentioned under the different headings, is frequently performed in various affections of the eye; it forms the preliminary stage of some of the operations for the extraction of cataract; it constitutes a prominent feature in the treatment of glaucoma; it is occasionally resorted to in purulent infiltration, and in certain forms of ulcer of the cornea; it is adopted, with great benefit, in many cases of chronic, recurrent, and serous iritis, of irido-choroiditis, and of anterior staphyloma.

Iridectomy is also resorted to in the majority of cases where an artificial pupil is required for *optical* purposes, as in central opacities of the cornea, which so cover up the front of the pupil, and so prevent vision. Also in some forms of cataract, as the lamellar and the anterior pyramidal, which, having become stationary, are still sufficiently clear at the peripheral zone to admit of distinct vision, after an artificial pupil has been made.

The instruments required for iridectomy are: (1) speculum, fig. 31; (2) fixation forceps, fig. 32; (3) either a bent triangular keratome, fig. 41, or Graefe's cataract knife, fig. 42; (4) a pair of straight or curved iris forceps, fig. 43; (5) a pair of iris scissors, figs. 44 or 45.

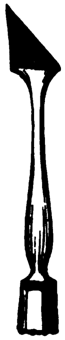

FIG. 41.
Bent Triangular Keratome.

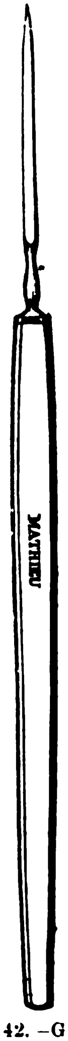

FIG. 42.—Graefe's Cataract Knife.

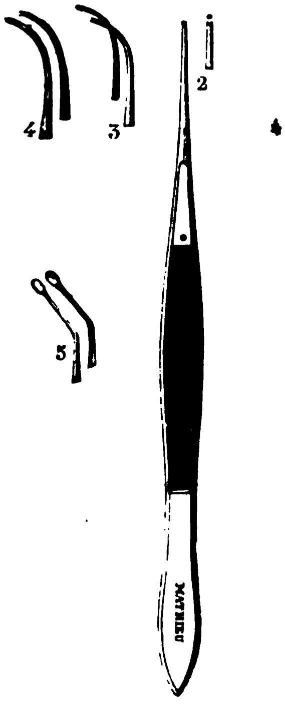

FIG. 43.
Iris Forceps.

The operation varies in detail according to the object with which it is performed. It is divided into two stages; the first stage consists in opening the anterior chamber by an incision of the sclerotic or the sclero-corneal junction, the second in seizing, drawing out, and excising the portion of iris to be removed. When the operation is intended for the relief of glaucoma, or for the purpose of subduing or preventing inflammatory affections, the iridectomy should be made in the upward direction, so that the gap thus formed in the iris shall be situated beneath the upper eyelid. The patient must be

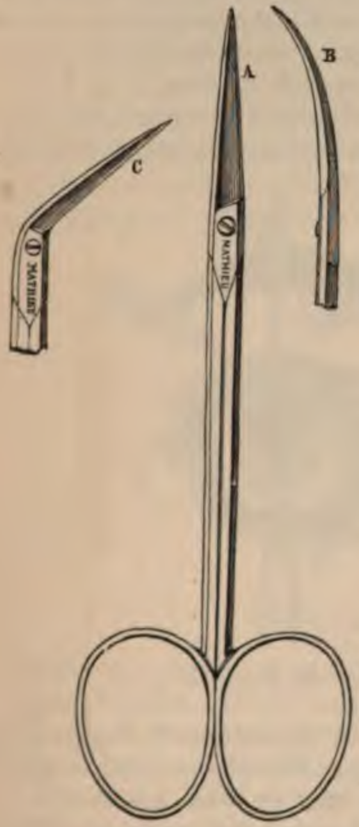

FIG. 44.—Iris Scissors.

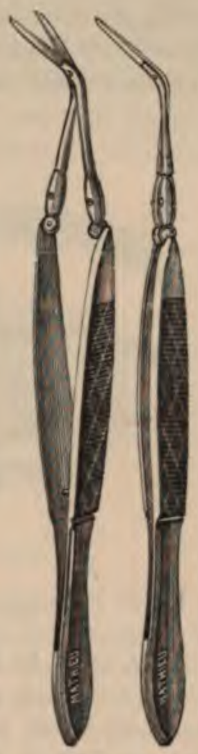

FIG. 45.—De Wecker's Iris Scissors.

thoroughly anæsthetised upon a firm table or couch, of such a height that his head reaches the level of the umbilical region of the operator, who stands behind the patient's head. The eyelids are kept open by means of a spring-stop speculum (fig. 31), and the globe is held steady by seizing the conjunctiva and subconjunctival tissue with fixation forceps (fig. 32) at the part immediately opposite to that at which the incision is about to be made. A bent triangular keratome (fig. 41) is then deliberately inserted into the sclerotic at from 1 to 2 mm. from the edge of the cornea, and pushed downwards across the anterior chamber until the wound thus made is from 6 to 8 mm. wide (see fig. 46). In doing this, the instrument is passed in obliquely and in such a direction that if continued it would cause a wound of the iris and lens; as soon, therefore, as its point is seen through the clear cornea, the handle is slightly depressed, so as to bring the blade into a plane anterior and parallel to that of the iris (fig. 46).

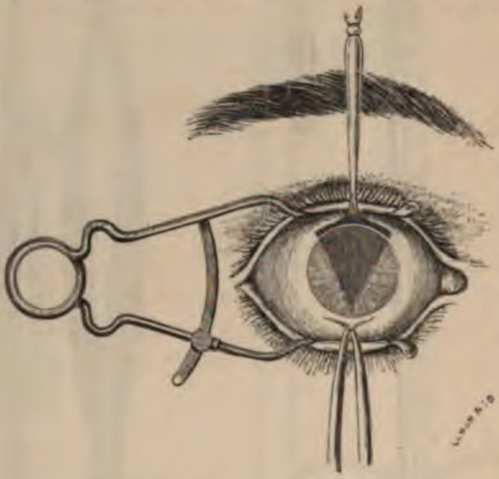

FIG. 46.—Iridectomy with Keratome.

The keratome is now steadily withdrawn. In doing this it is important to keep its apex well away from the plane of the iris and lens. Its withdrawal is accompanied by an escape of the aqueous, which may cause protrusion of the iris between the lips of the wound.

The keratome is now laid aside, and the fixation forceps entrusted to an assistant, who, if necessary, holds the globe in a state of slight rotation downwards, but *without undue pressure or traction.* The closed iris forceps (fig. 43) are now passed into the anterior chamber, the iris is seized near its pupillary edge, and dragged just outside one angle of the wound; whilst slight traction is made upon it in this position a snip is made through its outer part with the iris scissors (figs. 44 and 45) in the manner shown in figure 47; the portion of iris held in the forceps is then gently drawn across to the other angle, and the excision completed as near to its periphery as possible. Finally, the curette, or the probe (fig. 28), should be passed into the angles of the wound, so as to liberate any portion of iris that is entangled there, and the edges of the wound are brought into exact apposition. The speculum is then removed, the eyelids are gently closed, and a light compress of wet lint and a bandage are applied.

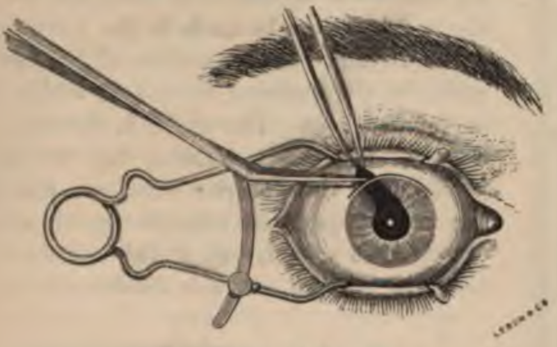

FIG. 47.—The Iridectomy.

When the anterior chamber is very shallow, by the bulging forwards of the iris and crystalline lens, the danger of wounding the latter is lessened by the use of the linear knife (fig. 42), as in the preliminary iridectomy for cataract extraction. (*See* Cataract.) Some surgeons, however, always make use of the linear knife in performing iridectomy.

Mr. Streatfeild makes an incision at the periphery of the cornea by the use of a Sichel's knife. (*See* Cataract.)

When the operation is required for optical purposes only, the position of the new pupil necessarily depends upon that of the lesion of the cornea. The best position, when possible, is either downwards and slightly inwards, or straight downwards. The object here is not to remove a large portion of the iris, but only so much as is necessary for distinct vision. Instead of the large bent keratome, a narrower one (broad needle, fig. 48) is employed for the first stage of the operation. The position of the first incision must depend upon the situation in which the new pupil is required. When this is only slightly eccentric, the incision can be made just within the margin of the cornea. When the pupil is required to be opposite the margin of the cornea, the incision must be made in the sclerotic, about 1 mm. beyond the sclero-corneal junction. The width of the incision should in either case be at least 3 mm. The globe is fixed by the assistant. The iris forceps, fig. 43, are now passed into the anterior chamber, and the iris seized at its pupillary edge and gently withdrawn through the wound, and, whilst held in this position, the portion which is outside the wound is snipped off close to the globe with the iris scissors (see fig. 49).

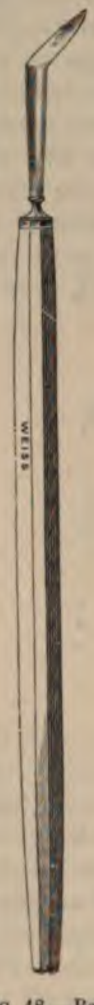

FIG. 48.—Bent Broad Needle.

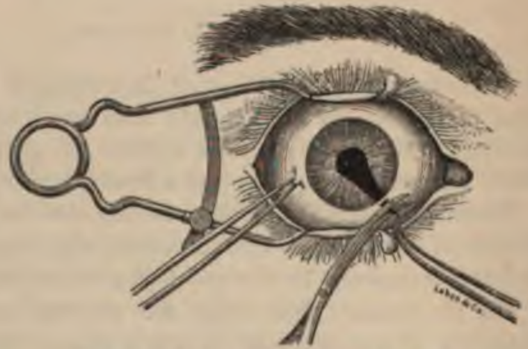

FIG. 49.—Iridectomy for Artificial Pupil.

When the pupil is required to extend quite to the margin of the cornea, slight pressure should be made upon the globe with the scissors as the iris is being cut away.

Instead of the iris forceps, a Tyrrel's hook (fig. 50) may be used. This is introduced on the flat, and passed as far as the centre of the pupil; it is then half rotated downwards and withdrawn so as to catch the edge of the pupil, by which means the iris is extracted, and cut off as before.

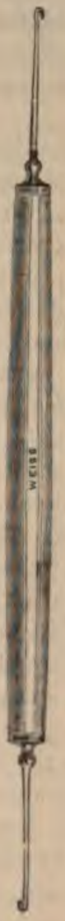

FIG. 50.—Tyrrel's Hook for Iridectomy.

The accidents and complications of iridectomy.—1. The lens may be wounded, either during the insertion or the withdrawal of the keratome. This is a very serious accident, as it is sure to be followed by partial or complete cataract.

2. The blade of the keratome may get between the layers of the cornea, instead of passing directly into the anterior chamber. This accident arises from it being held too obliquely at the *commencement* of the incision. As soon as this condition is discovered, the instrument should be immediately withdrawn, and another position selected for a fresh incision; if, however, the blade has finally entered the anterior chamber, so as to cause escape of the aqueous, the eye had better be bandaged up at once, and the operation postponed for at least twenty-four hours, in order that a re-secretion of aqueous may take place before the knife is again allowed to enter the anterior chamber. Without this precaution the iris and lens are so pushed forwards after the escape of aqueous that they are sure to be wounded at the time of the fresh incision.

3. When the incision is made in the sclerotic, there may be considerable hæmorrhage into the anterior chamber either before or after the excision of the iris. The blood can usually be made to flow out by depressing the upper

lip of the wound with the curette. When the excision of the iris is completed, no anxiety need be entertained on account of the presence of a moderate amount of blood in the anterior chamber, as it usually becomes absorbed within a few days.

Iridodesis (G. Critchett) consists in drawing the pupillary edge of the iris through a small opening in the margin of the cornea, and securing it by a fine silk ligature on the outside.

The incision is made immediately in front of the sclero-corneal junction, by means of a broad needle, bent at an obtuse angle. The needle is then removed, and a loop of fine black silk is placed immediately around the wound. A Tyrrell's hook or a pair of iris forceps is then passed through the loop and wound into the anterior chamber, and the pupillary edge of the iris seized and withdrawn through the wound to the desired extent. Whilst the iris is held in this position by the operator, the two ends of the ligature are picked up by the assistant, by means of broad cilia forceps; they are then tightened close to the surface of the cornea, and the knot is completed. The strangulated portion of iris quickly shrinks, and the ligature can be removed after a few days. By this means the original pupil is shifted to one side, and a new somewhat pear-shaped pupil is formed.

This method is particularly useful in certain cases of conical cornea and lamellar cataract, also where a central nebula of the cornea is sufficient to blur the vision, though not to exclude the light; the original pupil being obliterated by the traction upon the iris, the rays which formerly passed through the nebula are now excluded, whilst the new pupil only admits those rays which pass through the clear part of the cornea. Iridodesis was formerly practised somewhat extensively by G. Critchett, Bowman, and others; but the occurrence of sympathetic irritation and of sympathetic ophthalmitis in a few cases where the operation had been performed has caused it to be less frequently adopted.

Iridotomy (iritomy) consists in the formation of artificial pupil by simple incision of the iris. It can only be safely adopted when the crystalline lens is absent, and is mostly applied to those cases in which the iris has become tightly drawn upwards towards the cicatrix as the result of inflammation after the extraction of cataract.

Operation.—The eyelids being separated, and the globe steadied, as in the previous operations, a narrow lance-shaped keratome, fig. 41, is plunged through the upper part of the cornea about 2 mm. from the sclero-corneal junction, it is then pushed onwards through the membranous exudation to the back of the iris, and finally withdrawn. The iridotomy scissors (fig. 45) are now passed through the corneal wound, their blades being closed; as soon as they reach the iris one blade is passed behind and the other in front of that structure, which is now divided by a single snip from above downwards; this single incision is usually followed by immediate separation of the cut edges so as to form a slit-like or triangular pupil. In some cases it is necessary to make a second incision at an acute angle with the first, so as to include a V-shaped piece of iris, which can either be left to atrophy or be removed. My colleague, Mr. Anderson Critchett, has a dexterous method of detaching and bringing away this triangular piece of iris with the same iridotomy scissors.

Iridotomy is also practised by De Wecker and others for the production of artificial pupil in certain cases of lamellar cataract, &c.; the advantage claimed being that the small slit-like aperture thus obtained is better for optical purposes than the larger opening produced by even a small iridectomy. In such a case the incision in the cornea must be made at the side opposite to that at which the new pupil is required; it should be about 4 mm. wide. De Wecker's iridotomy scissors (fig. 45) are now carefully introduced to the anterior chamber. Having reached the pupil, the blunt-ended blade is passed behind the iris between it and the capsule; the other blade, which is usually gilt, is passed in front of the iris in the direction of the desired pupil; the iris is now divided by a single cut, and the closed instrument is cautiously withdrawn.

CHAPTER VII.

DISEASES OF THE OPTIC NERVE AND RETINA.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY OF THE OPTIC NERVE—ASPECT OF THE HEALTHY DISC—PHYSIOLOGICAL CUP—SCLEROTIC RING—ANATOMY OF THE RETINA—PHYSIOLOGY OF THE RETINA—ASPECT OF THE HEALTHY RETINA—PULSATION OF THE RETINAL VESSELS—HYPERÆMIA OF THE OPTIC DISC—OPTIC NEURITIS—OPTIC ATROPHY—HÆMORRHAGES OF THE OPTIC NERVE—OPAQUE NERVE FIBRES—RETINAL ISCHÆMIA—EMBOLISM OF THE CENTRAL ARTERY—RETINAL HÆMORRHAGES—ALBUMINURIC RETINITIS—SYPHILITIC RETINITIS—PIGMENTARY RETINITIS—DETACHMENT OF THE RETINA—GLIOMA OF THE RETINA—PSEUDO-GLIOMA.

Anatomy and Physiology of the Optic Nerve.—Each optic tract arises by two roots, of which *the external* takes origin from three centres of grey matter, viz. the optic thalamus, the external geniculate body, and the anterior tubercles (nates) of the corpora quadrigemina; while *the internal* arises from the internal geniculate body and the posterior tubercles (testes) of the corpora quadrigemina. These centres of grey matter are connected with the cerebral cortex by a system of fibres constituting the most posterior part of the optic thalamus (cortico-optic-radiating fasciculi—Charcot). Recent clinical observations point to the angular gyrus, and its neighbourhood in the occipital lobe, as the cortical centre of vision. *The optic tract* formed by the union of these two roots then passes forwards along the posterior inferior surface of the optic thalamus, crosses the crus cerebri, runs along the side of the tuber cinereum, and in front of the infundibulum unites with the optic tract of the opposite side to form the *optic commissure.* In the optic commissure the fibres of each optic tract undergo semidecussation (fig. 51, p. 207). From the optic commissure the two optic nerves arise, and pass forwards and outwards to the two optic foramina. As they pass through these, they become invested by prolongations from the pia mater and the dura mater of the brain. Each nerve is about 4 mm. in diameter, and its orbital portion is about 28 mm. in length. The nerve is made up of numerous bundles of nerve fibres, with intervening septa of connective tissue. The ophthalmic artery entirely supplies the optic nerve with blood.

Near the globe (about 10 mm. behind it) the optic nerve is penetrated by the central artery of the retina with its vein. These are accompanied by distinct lymphatic sheaths, and pass obliquely to the centre of the nerve. The central artery of the retina does not supply the optic nerve with blood, though it gives off a few minute branches immediately behind the lamina cribrosa, which pass forward in a parallel direction to supply that structure and the optic papilla.

The pial sheath (see fig. 1, opposite p. 166) is a fibro-vascular structure, which closely invests the nerve, and sends off numerous bands between the fibres of the latter, so as to form a network of trabecular tissue; the trabeculæ thus formed give off still finer connective tissue filaments, which extend between the nerve fibres. The pial sheath terminates anteriorly by blending with the inner fibres of the sclerotic at the edge of the optic disc. It is supplied with blood from the branches of the ophthalmic artery, and thus, by its continuity with the pia mater, establishes arterial communication between the intracranial and orbital arteries.

The dural sheath forms a complete fibrous investment to the nerve, and terminates anteriorly by blending with the sclerotic at the optic nerve entrance.

The intersheath space is the space between these two membranes, and is considered to be a lymph-space (Schwalbe). It is imperfectly divided by a delicate prolongation of connective tissue from the arachnoid membrane of the brain; this is attached partly to the dural, and partly to the pial sheath. The intersheath space communicates posteriorly with the subarachnoid space of the brain, and anteriorly with certain lymph spaces in the optic nerve at the lamina cribrosa.

The optic disc or papilla is formed by the radiating fibres of the optic nerve immediately after their passage through the openings in the sclerotic and choroid at the back of the eye.

The sclerotic opening, as we have just seen, is guarded by the lamina cribrosa. In front of this is a delicate layer of connective tissue containing capillaries, which is derived from the choroid. *The capillaries* of the disc are supplied from three sources, viz. the posterior short ciliary arteries of the choroid, the central artery of the retina, and the arterial twigs of the pial sheath. These three sets of vessels anastomose freely at the optic disc. As the nerve fibres pass through the lamina cribrosa they become divested of their medullary sheaths (white substance of Schwann), and are reduced to axis cylinders only, surrounded by a little transparent gelatinous substance (neuroglia). Being thus rendered quite transparent, they radiate towards the retina.

When examined with the ophthalmoscope the healthy optic disc usually appears as a whitish circular area surrounded by the orange-coloured groundwork formed by the choroid. It usually has a slight pinkish tint, such as is represented in figs. 1 and 2, opposite p. 134, but its appearance is subject to numerous slight variations, which can only be learned by frequent examination of healthy fundi. The white reflection is caused chiefly by the lamina cribrosa which shines through the transparent nerve-fibres, partly by the white substance of the nerve-sheaths which terminates just behind the disc; it is usually most marked at the outer part of the disc, where the fibres are thinnest. The pinkish tint is due to the presence of capillaries, and is more marked when these are distended than when they contain but little blood. In fair persons, where the pigment layer of the retina is thin, the disc often appears darker by contrast with the rest of the fundus than in persons of dark complexion. It occasionally happens that the disc looks quite white, although the visual and other functions of the eye are normal.

The central artery of the retina is seen to emerge from the depths of the optic nerve rather to the inner side of the centre of the disc; it sometimes divides before traversing the lamina cribrosa, but more commonly its point of bifurcation is anterior to that structure, and can be seen from the front. The two chief divisions thus formed pass vertically, the one upwards and the other downwards, to the retina. (*See* Retina.) The central vein accompanies the artery, and is distinguished by its somewhat darker colour and larger size.

Along the margin of the disc there is often seen a small

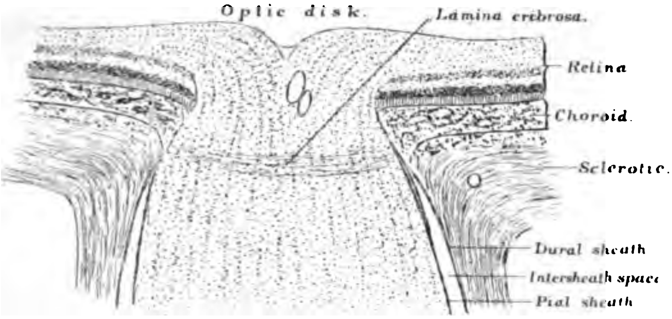

Fig 1. Normal optic disk. × about 40.

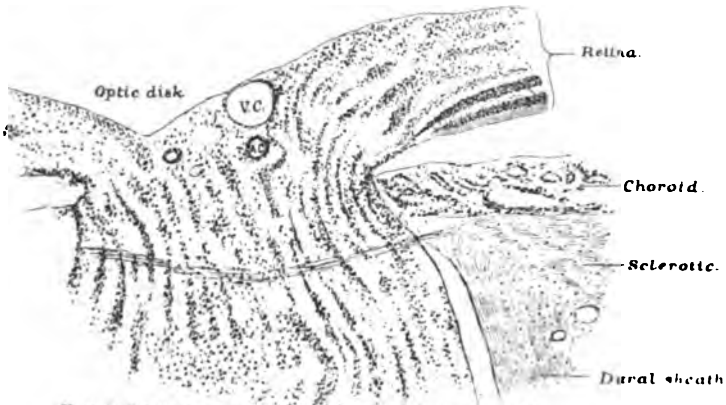

Fig 2. Optic neuritis (vertical) × about 50.

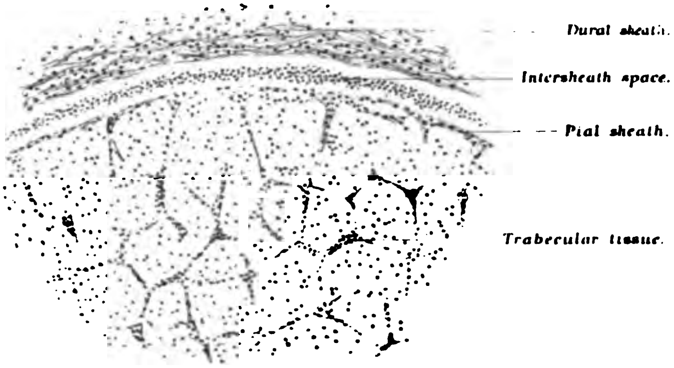

Fig 3. Optic neuritis (transverse) × 96 diam

patch or line of dark pigment. It may occur at any part of the circumference, and is of no pathological importance.

The Physiological Cup.—On examination by the direct method the optic disc frequently presents an excavation at its centre, just at the point of emergence of the central vessels. This is due to exposure of the central part of the lamina cribrosa by the divergence of the nerve fibres (see fig. 1, opposite p. 176). The central hollow thus formed is known as the physiological cup or pit; it is usually funnel-shaped, and varies considerably in extent, but it never extends to the extreme edge of the disc, as is the case in glaucomatous cupping. Moreover, it does not interfere with visual acuity.

The sclerotic ring is another feature of the normal disc which is frequently observed. It is a whitish ring situated at the edge of the disc, which is caused by the aperture in the choroid being somewhat larger than that in the sclerotic, so that the edge of the latter is seen as a white band through the transparent nerve fibres. It is often more visible on the outer side of the disc than throughout the rest of its extent, owing to the fact that the optic nerve fibres are thinner at that part. It can generally be seen as a complete ring when the optic nerve fibres are atrophied.

The optic disc is usually circular in form; in some cases, however, it appears somewhat elongated in one direction. This may be its real condition, in which case its form will be the same in whatever way it is examined, or the oval appearance may be due to astigmatism. If due to astigmatism, examination by the indirect method will show that the direction of its long axis and its length compared with the short axis vary with the position of the lens. The average diameter of the disc is about 1·6 mm.; its apparent size varies with the refractive condition of the eye. (*See* Refraction.)

The Retina is a delicate membrane containing the terminal end-organs of the fibres of the optic nerve, supported by a connective tissue framework. It lies between the choroid and the vitreous humour, and extends from the optic disc to the outer part of the ciliary processes, where it presents a finely indented border, the *ora serrata*. At this point the nervous elements of the retina cease, but the connective tissue framework is continued forwards under the name of the *pars ciliaris retinæ* as far as the zonula. At the back of the retina is a layer of hexagonal pigment cells which is continuous with the pigmentary layers of the iris and ciliary body already described. This layer adheres to the choroid when the latter is separated from the retina; it was formerly considered to belong to that body, but the study of the development of the part shows that it belongs to the retina. By carefully removing the anterior portion of the globe with scissors, and clearing away the vitreous (immediately after an eye has been excised from the living subject), we find that the inner surface of the retina is smooth, and that its substance is quite transparent. About 3 mm. to the inner side of the posterior pole of the globe is seen a white circular disc of about 1·6 mm. diameter. This is the *optic disc* or *papilla* (p. 165), from the centre of which the radiating-retinal vessels are plainly visible. At the posterior pole the brown colour of the pigmentary layer is observed to be intensified over a small area; this is the yellow spot (*macula lutea*), and if the segment of the globe be placed in water and examined under a low power of the microscope, this area will be found to be depressed at the centre; the depression is the *fovea centralis*. In some cases also there will be found a yellowish appearance, hence the name of yellow spot which has been given to this, the most sensitive portion of the retina, although in many cases the difference of colour between this region and the remainder of the retina is extremely slight. The yellow spot region is about 1·25 mm. in diameter, and is somewhat elliptical in shape, the long axis being horizontal.

Microscopic Anatomy.—The elementary structures of the retina are arranged in several layers, the chief of which are shown in figs. 1, 2, and 3, on the opposite page. These may be enumerated from before backwards, as follows:

1. The internal limiting membrane
2. The nerve-fibre layer
3. The ganglionic layer
4. The inner molecular layer
5. The inner granular layer
6. The outer molecular layer
7. The outer granular layer
8. The outer limiting membrane
9. The rods and cones
10. The pigmentary layer
11. The connective tissue framework

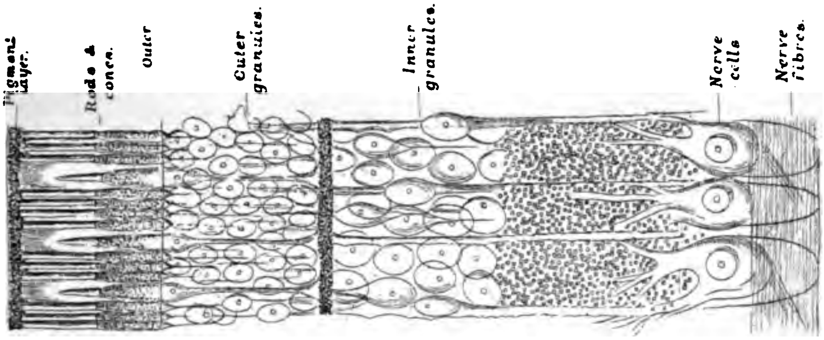

Fig. 1. Section of human retina.
(Diagrammatic Schultze.)

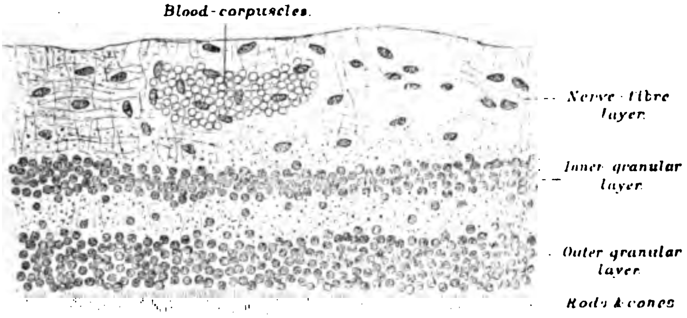

Fig 2 Hæmorrhagic retinitis × ab. 150

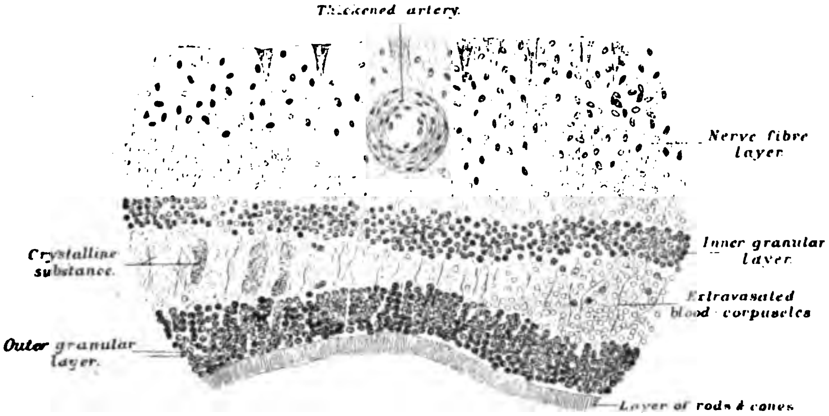

Fig.3 Albuminuric retinitis × ab.160.

1. *The internal limiting membrane* is very thin and imperfect; its inner surface rests against the vitreous humour, while its outer surface is in contact with the nerve-fibre layer, and is intimately connected with the terminal extremities of the fibres of Müller.

2. *The nerve-fibre layer* is formed by the fibres of the optic nerve on their way to the ganglion cells; these, as we have seen, consist simply of the axis cylinder surrounded by a little neuroglia.

3. *The layer of ganglion cells* is composed of structures similar to those of nerve centres. They are multipolar cells containing a nucleus and a bright nucleolus; their prolongations are directed inwards to communicate with the axis cylinders of the nerve-fibre layer, and outwards towards the inner molecular layer.

4. *The inner molecular layer* is composed of fine fibrillæ irregularly disposed amongst grey amorphous molecules.

5. *The inner granular layer* (inner nuclear layer) consists of two kinds of cellular elements, and two kinds of fibres. The larger cells are nerve cells, and are similar to the bipolar ganglion cells, having a large nucleus and a small nucleolus. Each of these cells has two tail-like processes—one passes to the outer granular layer to anastomose with the nerve-element of that part, the other goes inwards, and is lost in the inner molecular layer. The other cells of this layer are connected with the fibres of Müller.

6. *The outer molecular layer* is similar to the inner molecular.

7. *The outer granular layer* (or outer nuclear) consists of nerve elements and of connective-tissue elements, like the inner granular layer. The nerve elements consist of bipolar cells (containing nuclei and granules), from which delicate fibres pass inwards to the inner granular layer, and outwards to the rods and cones. The nuclei thus connected with the cones are situated nearer to the external limiting membrane than those communicating with the rods, the cone-fibres being shorter than the rod-fibres.

8. *The external limiting membrane* is the expansion formed by the terminal extremities of the fibres of Müller.

The sclerotic opening, as we have just seen, is guarded by the lamina cribrosa. In front of this is a delicate layer of connective tissue containing capillaries, which is derived from the choroid. *The capillaries* of the disc are supplied from three sources, viz. the posterior short ciliary arteries of the choroid, the central artery of the retina, and the arterial twigs of the pial sheath. These three sets of vessels anastomose freely at the optic disc. As the nerve fibres pass through the lamina cribrosa they become divested of their medullary sheaths (white substance of Schwann), and are reduced to axis cylinders only, surrounded by a little transparent gelatinous substance (neuroglia). Being thus rendered quite transparent, they radiate towards the retina.

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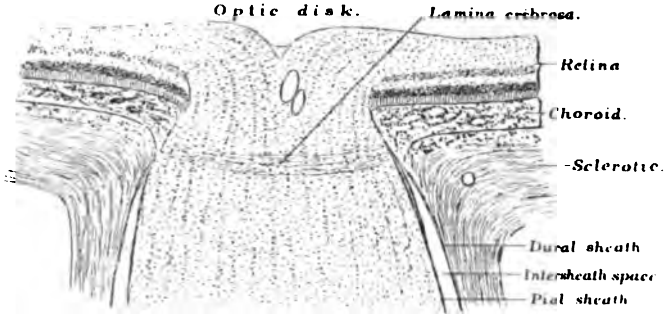

Fig. 1. Normal optic disk. × about 40.

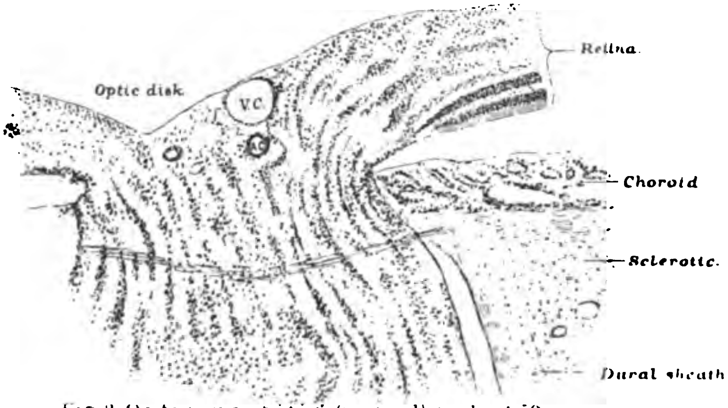

Fig. 2. Optic neuritis (vertical) × about 50.

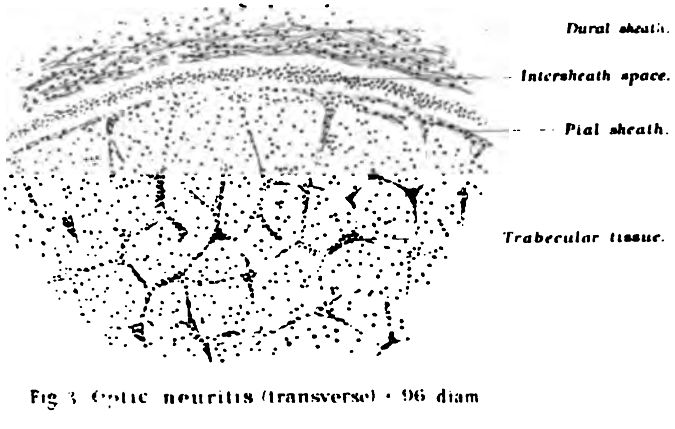

Fig. 3. Optic neuritis (transverse) × 96 diam.

are polarised by the outer segments of the rods and cones, and the luminous movements are changed into molecular movements which traverse the retinal layers to reach the nerve fibres, whence they are conducted to the brain.

In consequence of the optical properties of the eye and the arrangement of the retinal elements, each of the latter receives light from one point in the visual field, and from no other; this correspondence between the element which is excited and the position of the point from which the light proceeds enables us to judge of the relative position of the points where images are formed in the retina. Our judgment, however, receives much unconscious support from other senses, and many sensations which seem to be simply visual—such as the sense of size, distance, and solidity—are in reality complex, and depend to a great extent on the teaching of experience, on muscular sense which tells us the position the eyes are in, on the amount of convergence and accommodation used, and on a comparison with well-known objects.

For *distinct* vision the image of the object must fall upon the yellow spot, or rather its central part, the fovea centralis. This is called *direct* vision, in opposition to *indirect* vision, which occurs when the image falls on any other portion of the retina.

In order that two points may give rise to separate visual impressions their images must be at least 0·002 mm. apart; for, since this is approximately the diameter of the cones, images which were nearer together than this would only stimulate one cone, and therefore give rise to but one visual impression.

Over the optic disc there is no retina, and therefore no perception of light, hence this point is called the blind spot, and its existence is shown by the familiar experiment of making a dot and a small circle about 5 cm. apart, the dot being placed to the left. If, with the left eye shut, the right eye views the dot steadily when held near to and in front of the eye, the circle will usually be also in view. On moving the paper slowly away from the eye the circle will be found to vanish, and on moving it still further away it will again come into view. When it vanished from sight its image fell wholly on the blind spot. This occurs when the distance of the dot from the eye is about four times that between the dot and the circle. The percipient elements of the retina are the rods and cones, especially their outer segments. This is proved by the fact, firstly, that only cones are found over the fovea centralis; secondly, that the vessels of the retina can be perceived entoptically under certain conditions. If a thin metal disc, having a pin-hole aperture at its centre and a piece of pale blue glass behind it, be rapidly moved in a small circle in front of the pupil while we steadily look through the pin-hole at a white cloud, a complete outline of all the network of capillaries around the fovea centralis can be speedily obtained. Purkinje's experiments, as described in text-books of physiology, also show the existence of the blood-vessels to be in front of the sensitive elements of the retina.

Corresponding retinal areas.—In order that the two retinal images of an object may give rise to a single visual impression, it is necessary that images should fall upon corresponding retinal areas. Thus the upper halves of the retinæ correspond, and also the lower halves; but the nasal side of one retina corresponds to the temporal side of the other, and *vice versâ*. When we see (in indirect vision) to the left side, it is not so much with the external part of the right as with the internal part of the left retina, and *vice versâ*. Now all rays affecting the external aspect of the retina come from the nasal *visual field;* and this field, tested separately for each eye, is always found deficient in extent compared to the temporal visual field, even when the influence of the projecting bridge of the nose is eliminated (Landolt). It is probable that it is only when the images fall near the central part of the retina that they continue to form a single visual impression; when one falls near the centre, and the other on a very peripheral part, the latter image, being less intense, is disregarded.

The ophthalmoscopic appearance of the retina.—When the healthy fundus is examined by the direct method, and with a bright illumination, the retina is, in the majority of cases, found to be perfectly transparent. It reflects little or no light and offers no resistance to that reflected from the choroid, and is therefore quite invisible—in fact, were it not for the presence of its blood-vessels, it would be impossible by this test alone to assert that the retina existed. When only a feeble illumination is used, a slight brilliant reflex can be obtained from the region immediately surrounding the optic disc. This is caused by reflection of the light from the curved surface, where the fibres of the nerve are spreading out to reach the retina. The appearance is difficult to describe: it varies with each tilting of the mirror, is somewhat like the reflection from shot-silk, and is lost in the red reflex from the choroid when the intensity of the light is increased. In certain cases, however, there is a retinal reflex of this nature whatever the intensity of the illumination; this usually obtains in young children, and in persons of very dark complexion, where the choroid is highly pigmented. Along the course of the vessels also this may be usually observed in the form of a bright line; it is distinguished from a pathological change by the fact that the reflection will shift from one side of the vessel to the other by the slightest movement of the mirror.

The yellow spot is to be sought on the outer side of the optic disc, at a distance equal to twice the diameter of the latter. In many cases, especially in adult fair persons, the healthy so-called yellow spot presents the appearance shown in fig. 1, opposite p. 134; that is, it differs but little, if at all, in colour from the surrounding fundus, and can only be distinguished from the other parts of the retina by the absence of visible vessels, and by its position with regard to the optic disc. In the majority of eyes, however, there is an intensification of the colour, giving an appearance similar to that shown in fig. 2, opposite p. 134. In some cases, more especially in young subjects and dark eyes, a small, yellowish, somewhat brilliant spot is seen; this is the fovea centralis. It is surrounded by an ill-defined dark area, and around this again there is sometimes a greyish halo, which changes its appearance when the mirror is tilted.

The vessels of the retina are easily distinguished from those of the choroid by their radiating course, their dichotomous mode of branching, their clearness of tint, and their well-defined outline.

The peripheral as well as the central portions of the retina should always, as far as possible, be examined; these are better seen when the pupil has been previously dilated. The ophthalmoscope should be held as close to the cornea as possible (about 5 mm.), and the patient told to look successively in the outward, inward, upward, and downward directions; this brings into view the outer, inner, upper, and lower portions of the retina respectively. In order to see the lower portion when the patient looks downwards it is necessary to elevate the upper lid with the finger of the hand which is not holding the ophthalmoscope. The examination of the peripheral parts of the fundus is especially important because certain morbid conditions—such as pigmentary retinitis, disseminated choroiditis, detachment of retina, and other affections, often make their first appearance in that part, whilst the central portions are apparently normal.

The arteries of the retina are from two-thirds to three-fourths the size of the veins, they are lighter in colour, and their course is somewhat straighter.

Pulsation of the retinal veins is sometimes observed, even in normal eyes. This is only seen upon the optic disc, and various theories have been propounded as to its causation:

1. Donders considers it to be owing to the rhythmically increased arterial tension communicated to the veins, the vitreous body being less compressible than these. It occurs only on the disc because here the tension of the veins is most feeble. The pulsation thus appears in the diastolic arterial interval.

2. *Schön* ascribes it to the pulsation of the artery communicated to the vein as they lie together in the optic nerve.

Pulsation of the retinal arteries is very rarely found in normal eyes, although both arterial and venous pulsation can be produced by digital pressure upon the globe during ophthalmoscopic examination. When it does exist it may be due to one of two local causes. (i.) It may be nothing more than a pulsation communicated from the neighbouring vein, in which case the pulsation of the artery would succeed that of the vein. (ii.) It may arise from the fact that the branches at the disc are given off at right angles to the main trunk immediately after its bifurcation (Otto Becker).[1] With these rare exceptions, therefore, the existence of arterial pulsation at the optic disc is indicative of some pathological condition either of the eye itself, of the orbit, or of the general circulation—e.g.:

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[1] *Archiv für Ophth.* vol. xviii., part i., p. 266.

1. Arterial pulsation may be caused by increased intraocular pressure which prevents the retinal arteries from becoming filled except at the acmé of the pulse-wave. It is not uncommon in glaucoma; and when not occurring spontaneously in glaucoma, it can usually be temporarily produced by very slight pressure upon the globe, whereby the tension is still more increased.

2. It is also occasionally seen in cases where the trunk of the central artery has become compressed, as in certain cases of optic neuritis, and in tumours of the orbit where the optic nerve is pressed upon.

3. The tension of eye being normal, arterial pulsation may be caused by low arterial tension, arising from deficient action of the heart. It is common in aortic regurgitation with hypertrophy of the left ventricle, in Basedow's disease, in syncope following loss of blood, and it is said to be present during the period of asphyxia in cholera.

Hyperæmia of the disc is characterised by increased redness. The large central vessels can be plainly seen, but the colour of the area of the disc is intensified; in severe cases its redness is only with difficulty distinguished from that of the surrounding region (see fig. 2, on the opposite page). It is, as a rule, unattended by impairment of the visual function, although there may be hypersensitiveness to light (photophobia), early fatigue in reading, and indistinct pain in and around the globe.

Hyperæmia is frequently found in the subjects of hypermetropia and hypermetropic astigmatism. It is also common amongst those who are obliged to work for long periods in a bright light, such as gaslight. It is usually seen in the early stage of optic neuritis.

In some cases the congestion is of a passive or venous nature, resulting from obstruction to the return of blood to the heart; under these circumstances the veins of the disc are tortuous and distended, and its colour is deeper than that which occurs in active hyperæmia.

In treatment the cause of this affection must be borne in mind. Any existing error of refraction must be corrected by

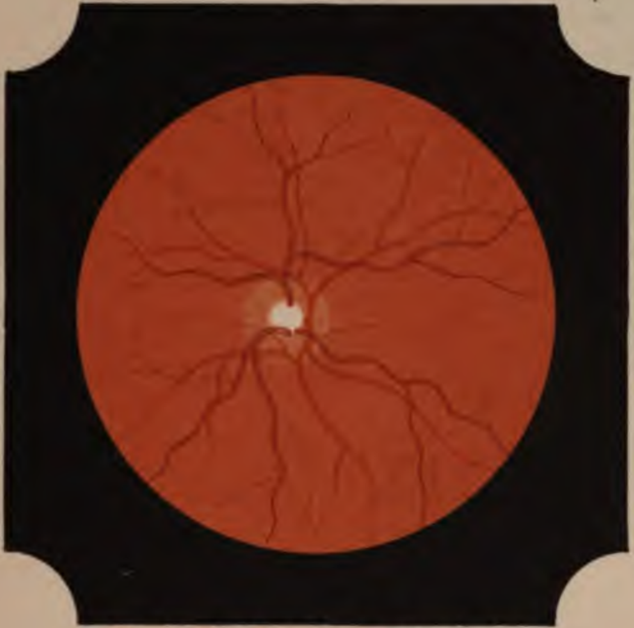

Fig. 1. Physiological cup of optic disc.

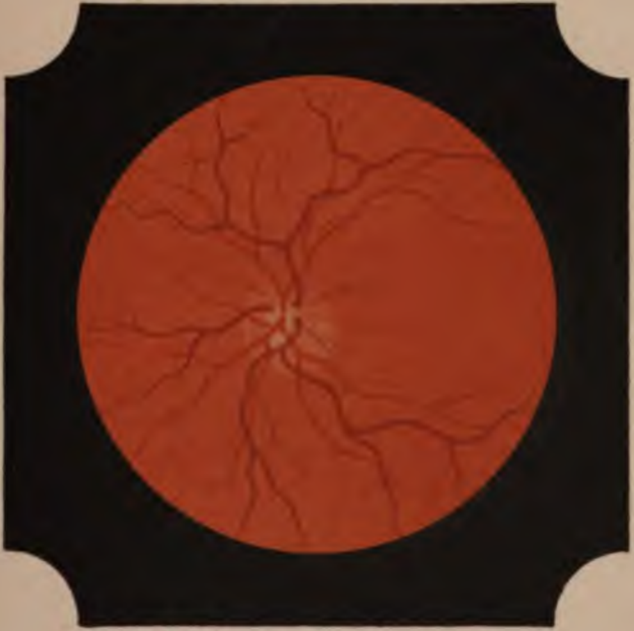

Fig. 2. Commencing optic neuritis.

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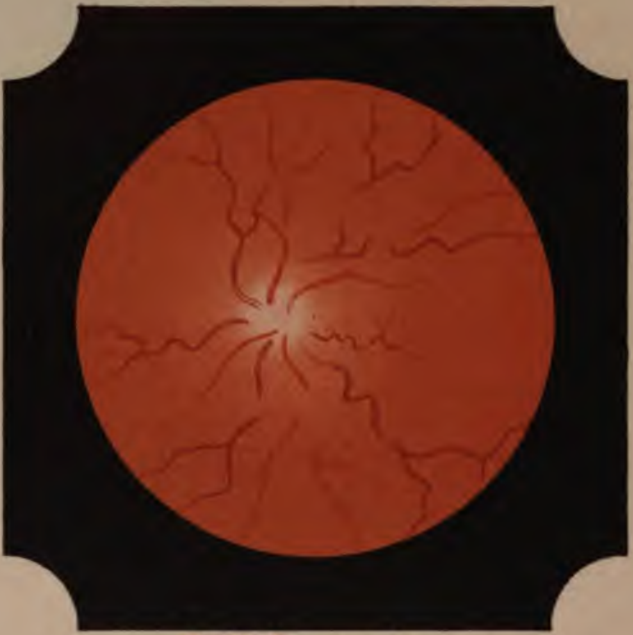

Fig. 1. Neuro-retinitis.

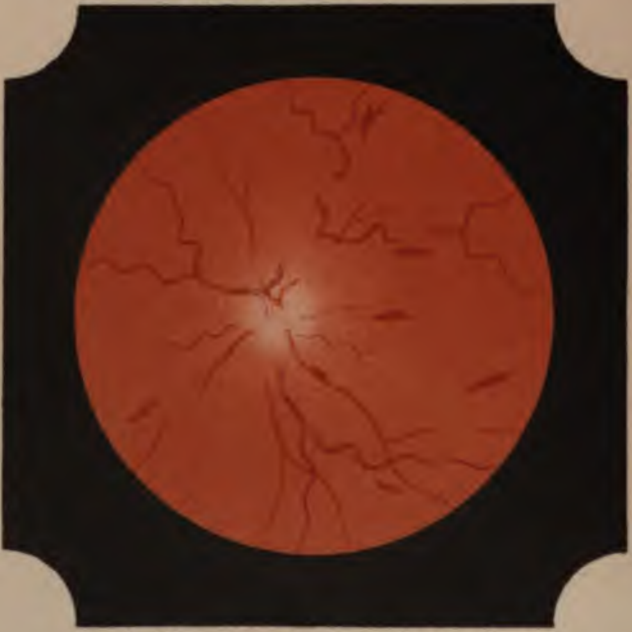

Fig. 2. Neuro-retinitis with hæmorrhages.

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suitable glasses. Over-use of the eyes must be discontinued, and bright light avoided by the use of neutral-tinted glasses.

Optic Neuritis.—Papillitis.—The optic nerve may be inflamed in the whole of its course, or the signs of inflammation may be most marked at one particular point, either within the skull, within the orbit, or at the papilla within the globe.

It is with the last of these that we are chiefly concerned, and, following the suggestion of Leber, we propose to use the term papillitis in preference to 'choked disc,' 'descending neuritis,' and other terms, which are misleading as involving theories of causation not yet proved.

The ophthalmoscopic signs of papillitis.—In the early stage the whole disc becomes swollen, and bulges forwards into the vitreous, whilst its edge is blurred or invisible. Its colour is at first red, as in simple hyperæmia (fig. 2, opposite p. 176), or it may be more livid from intense congestion; this redness soon becomes changed to a greyish opalescence. The veins are distended and tortuous, and are seen to bulge forwards and bend abruptly as they leave the margin of the swelling.

At a later stage the opalescent haze may give place to a decided opacity, which is of a pinkish or yellowish white, more or less striated, appearance. Not only is the edge of the disc now quite hidden from view, but the central vessels may be obscured or only to be seen at some distance from the centre of the disc (figs. 1 and 2, on the opposite page); the veins are now very large and tortuous, the arteries are either of normal size, contracted, or quite hidden by the opacity of the papilla. So great is the swelling of the disc in some cases, that when examined by the direct method it can be seen with a convex lens as high as 6 D. In many cases small hæmorrhages may be distinguished in the form of elongated patches running parallel to the directions of the chief vessels.

This affection is seldom confined to the papilla; it can usually be observed to invade more or less of the surrounding retina. Fig. 1, on the opposite page, represents a case of this kind. It was taken from a patient with a tumour in the left cerebral hemisphere. The papilla is immensely swollen, and its outline is lost, the vessels are quite obscure at the centre of the disc, the veins are tortuous, and the retina is affected with a general haziness which obscures the vessels at certain points. (*See* Retinitis.)

At a later stage still (post-papillitic) these changes in the appearance of the disc undergo gradual subsidence. At the end of some weeks or months the opacity begins to disappear, and the edge of the disc may be seen as through a mist ('woolly disc'), which gradually becomes less and less. The edge of the disc is thus again brought into view, and may present the same appearance as it did before the papillitis, or its outline may be somewhat irregular. The vessels gradually become less tortuous, and may undergo permanent contraction. The area of the disc may resume its normal pinkish tint, or may be more or less blanched. (*See* Atrophy.)

Other symptoms of papillitis.—It is remarkable that considerable swelling and haze of the optic disc *may* exist before the patient experiences any serious interference with vision. Thus, there may be unimpaired visual acuity, good colour perception, and an unrestricted visual field.

Vision is seldom much impaired until papillitis has existed for some time. If resolution take place quickly, that is, before the inflammation has given rise to atrophy of the nerve-fibres, there may be no failure of vision at all, or, the sight having become affected even to a serious degree, may quite recover. As a rule, however, it is common to find papillitis attended with considerable derangement of vision. 1. *Visual acuity* may be much impaired, or may even be reduced to mere perception of light. 2. *Colour vision*, more especially for green and red, may be considerably interfered with. 3. *The visual field* may be found to differ from the normal in various ways. The blind spot, that is, the scotoma corresponding to the optic disc, is usually enlarged. The field for white may be but slightly, if at all, contracted, whilst the field for green may be much diminished or entirely lost. The field for red may also be diminished. These changes in the visual field become more marked as the atrophic changes set in.

Both eyes are usually affected, but the vision is generally worse in one eye than in the other at the same time. The appearance of a central scotoma for colours (such as is found in tobacco amaurosis) is rare. Failure of vision usually comes on gradually; in some cases, however, it has been known to be very considerable in the course of a few days.

When blindness supervenes, as it unfortunately often does, it generally does so gradually.

Pathology of papillitis.—If we examine the optic nerve microscopically, by making horizontal and vertical sections through the region of the optic disc of an eye removed during the acute stage of papillitis, we find all the trabecular tissue, the neuroglia, and the blood-vessels, infiltrated with freely staining nuclei. There is often, also, considerable œdema of the trabecular tissue. The intersheath space of the optic nerve is also affected; it may be distended with fluid, and contain only a few inflammatory nuclei, or there may be little or no fluid, but many nuclei. The intraocular portion of the nerve (papilla) is found to be swollen, and to bulge forwards into the vitreous cavity. In thus starting forwards, it often causes separation of the retina from the choroid near the edge of the disc, so as to give to the section of the inflamed papilla a pedunculated appearance. Figs. 2 and 3, opposite p. 166, are drawn from well-marked specimens of optic neuritis occurring in a case of acute meningitis. These were hardened in Müller's fluid and stained with logwood. On comparing them with fig. 1, which represents a vertical section of the normal disc, similarly prepared, the greatly increased number of nuclei is evident both in the vertical and the transverse sections. In the latter, it will also be observed that the intersheath space is crowded with these structures.

This condition of hypernucleation of the nerve, nerve sheath, and papilla is more marked in cases of meningitis than in papillitis arising from other causes. Recent observations,[1] however, tend to prove that in all cases of papillitis there can usually be found more or less hypernucleation in the optic nerve trunk, as well as in the papilla; this may be more abundant at the disc than in the nerve trunk, or *vice versâ*.

The causes of papillitis.—1. *Intracranial diseases* are by far the most frequent; they are said to give rise to at least four-fifths of the cases of papillitis (Mauthner). Of these the most common is cerebral tumour. Next in frequency come meningitis and other inflammatory affections. Then follow abscess of the brain, hydatid disease of the brain, and cerebral softening from vascular obstruction. 2. *Renal disease*—albuminuria, glycosuria. 3. *Local lesions of the eye*—e.g. ulcer of the cornea. 4. *Lead poisoning*. 5. *Errors of refraction*, more especially hypermetropia and astigmatism. 6. *Amenorrhœa, anæmia, and other morbid states.* 7. *Local lesions in the orbit* may cause the unilateral form. 8. *Syphilis.*

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[1] Vide Gowers on *Medical Ophthalmoscopy*, 1882; also Brailey, Walter Edmunds, Stephen Mackenzie, and Leber in the *Trans. Internat. Med. Cong.* 1881, and the *Trans. of Ophthalm. Soc.* 1881 and 1882.

The theories as to the cause of papillitis in cerebral disease are chiefly as follow:

1. *The mechanical theory of Graefe* assumed venous obstruction from increased intracranial pressure affecting the cavernous sinus. This view is now abandoned, because free anastomosis has been demonstrated between the orbital and facial veins, and because large tumours of the brain may exist with very little papillitis; while, on the other hand, tumours too small to appreciably increase the cranial contents frequently produce papillitis.

2. *Manz*[1] assigned dropsy of the intersheath space of the optic nerve to be the cause. This he considered to be due to admission of the cerebro-spinal fluid in cases of intracranial pressure, or increase of subarachnoid fluid. This theory is supported by Dr. Broadbent[2] and others.

3. *Schmidt*, however, found that a coloured injection passed from the sheath space into the lymphatics of the papilla at the lamina cribrosa; and he considered the inflammation to be produced not alone by the pressure of the fluid in the intersheath space, but by its pressure in these lymphatic spaces.

4. *Leber*[3] considers the inflammation to be caused not at all by the *pressure* of the fluid in the sheath, but by the conveyance of *pathogenic material* in that fluid to the optic nerve at the back of the eye.

5. Dr. Hughlings Jackson considers the most plausible hypothesis to be that first proposed by Schweller, viz. that a cerebral tumour acts as a source of irritation which has a reflex influence through the *vaso-motor* nerves upon the optic disc, leading to its inflammation.

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[1] *Deutsch. Arch. f. Klin. Med.* vol. ix. 1871

[2] *Trans. Oph. Soc.* vol. i. p. 108.

[3] Discussion at International Medical Congress, London, 1881.

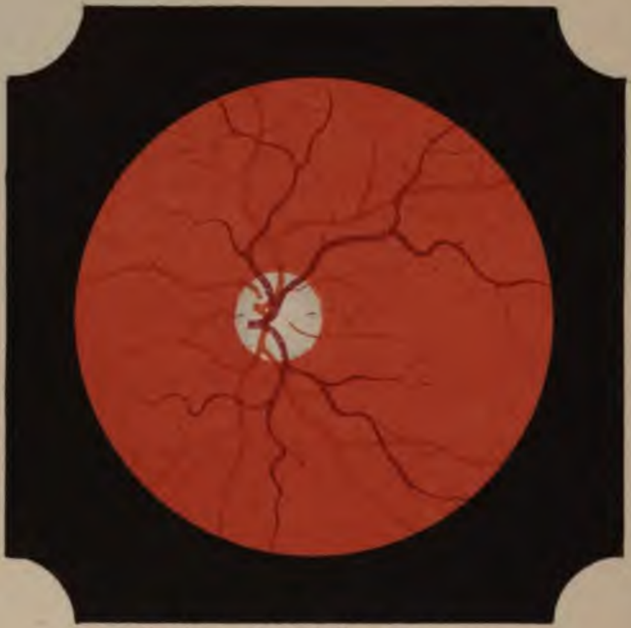

Fig. 1. Atrophy of Optic Nerve.

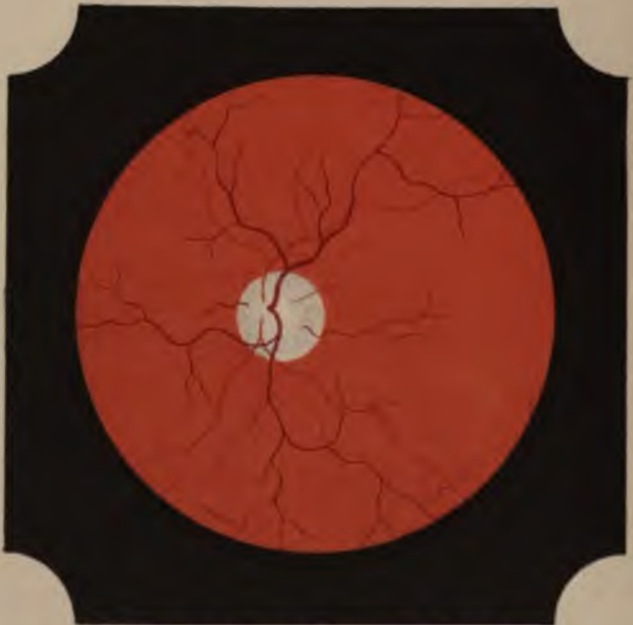

Fig. 2. Atrophy of Optic Nerve and Retina.

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This theory is rejected, however, by most writers, on the ground that we possess no anatomical knowledge of such nerves.

6. Galezowski believes that the inflammation is in all cases propagated by continuity of tissue. This theory is strongly supported by Dr. Brailey, Dr. Walter Edmonds, and others, including myself, who have had opportunities of examining a large number of cases microscopically.

Treatment must be directed as far as possible to the removal of the cause of the affection. The various intracranial diseases must therefore be treated by appropriate measures independently of the papillitis, which, although serious on account of its pernicious effects upon the vision, is still only a symptom. The same rule applies to other causes. The eyes should be protected from bright light by the use of neutral tinted glasses. When no satisfactory cause can be found for the existence of papillitis, the use of mercurials, short of salivation, and of iodide of potassium, is advisable.

Optic neuritis is occasionally met with in young girls from fifteen to twenty, and the cause usually assigned is some irregularity of the menstrual function; often, however, careful inquiry fails to elicit any history of this. The neuritis is generally preceded by severe headaches, and the prognosis as regards sight is extremely unfavourable.

Atrophy of the Optic Nerve.—*Symptoms.*—1. *Pallor of the optic disc* is one of the first signs of atrophy of the optic nerve (see figs. 1 and 2, on the opposite page); the usual slight rose or pink tint has become diminished or is altogether lost. The direct method of examining with the ophthalmoscope is the best here, and the details of the papilla can often be best seen when a feeble illumination is used. The various appearances of the healthy eye (see p. 166) should be borne in mind when making the examination; and it must not be forgotten that, as before mentioned, a very white-looking disc occasionally occurs in a perfectly normal eye. As a rule, however, the pallor of the disc is in proportion to the amount of atrophy present.

2. *Diminution of visual acuity* almost invariably takes place from the onset of the affection. Its rate of progress is also subject to variation; as a rule it proceeds slowly towards total blindness, but it may become more rapid and lead to this result

in a comparatively short time; on the other hand, it occasionally becomes stationary.

3. *Impaired colour vision* is an almost constant symptom. The patient at first finds a difficulty in recognising green, and if asked to match a pure green with the confusion colours for green (*see* Colour Vision) he will be unable to do so. Green appears to him to be a grey or yellow. Further than this, the progress of the disease is marked by gradually-increasing trouble in the perception of colours. Next the red, and then the yellow, can no longer be recognised with any degree of certainty, thus leaving only the power of discerning blue. Finally, this also disappears, and the colour blindness is complete.

4. *Alterations in the visual field.*—The failure of visual acuity, already mentioned, is usually accompanied by more or less *contraction of the visual field for white*; this generally consists in a regular contraction, the outline of which is concentric with the macula; it may, however, take the form of a sector-like defect, or one-half of the field (apart from the hemiopia of cerebral disease) may be lost; lastly, the alteration may consist in an irregular scotoma in the middle of the field. Again, it is frequently found that *the limits of the field for colours are also contracted.* By the method of testing indicated in the chapter on perimetry we find that the field for green becomes smaller by degrees, and finally disappears. With the progress of the atrophy this contraction of the field for green is followed by a similar limitation for red, then for yellow, and finally for blue. Fig. 2, opposite p. 216, shows the commencing concentric contraction of the field for colours. Fig. 1, opposite p. 206, shows a more advanced condition of atrophy, in which only the field for blue is left, and even that is less than normal in extent. The contraction of the field for colours is, in fact, more constantly found than that for white.

Causes.—Atrophy of the optic nerve may be a *primary* change, it may be *secondary* to some previous lesion, or it may be *consecutive* to papillitis.

Primary atrophy often comes on without any apparent cause. It is more common in males than in females. It is often associated with spinal diseases, of which the most important class is that connected with tabes dorsalis. It is also caused by other diseases, as syphilis, diabetes, intermittent fever, cold, and menstrual irregularity. It is sometimes congenital and hereditary. Lastly, certain toxic agents, as tobacco, alcohol, and lead, often cause amblyopia, and may cause partial or complete atrophy.

Secondary atrophy is the result of some lesion, either of a portion of the brain (cerebral centre), from which the optic nerves arise, or of some part of the optic nerve-fibres. (*See* Hemiopia.) Pressure on the chiasma from various causes, lesions affecting the optic nerve in the skull and in the orbit, and blows upon the head, may all induce secondary atrophy.

Consecutive atrophy is that form which results from papillitis (post-papillitic).

Microscopic examination of the atrophied nerves shows that the atrophy is not confined to the optic disc. The fibres and the connective-tissue elements of the nerve-trunk present various degrees of wasting. As a rule, these elements are increased, and the nerve-fibres partially or totally destroyed. In some cases the latter appear to be partially replaced by particles of fatty matter.

Prognosis is always unfavourable, especially in cases where the cause of the affection is beyond control. Progressive atrophy usually attacks both eyes, and terminates very often in complete blindness. Perimetric observation of the visual field at stated intervals gives the best indication of the progress of the disease. Those forms in which the visual field is not concentrically contracted, but diminished in one part more than another, are the least pernicious.

Treatment is frequently of no benefit.

The continuous voltaic current has been tried by Remak, Benedict, Pye-Smith, Gunn, and others, with the effect of some restoration of vision. The current must be varied in strength according to the susceptibilities of the patient. About six or eight cells of a Stohrer's battery can usually be borne; but it is well to be very cautious in the application of this remedy, as a comparatively weak current sometimes produces vertigo and other symptoms, which are very alarming to the patient. The positive pole is placed over the mastoid process, and the negative pole upon the closed eyelids. The current is continued for five minutes at each sitting, and is repeated daily. Dr. Gowers states that he has tried this treatment in many cases, but without results which could reasonably be ascribed to the treatment.

The hypodermic injection of strychnine is advocated by Nagel and others. He injects about 1 milligramme of the sulphate of strychnine dissolved in 10 minims of distilled water, every second day. If there is no improvement by the end of six weeks, the treatment can be discontinued as useless.

General treatment is according to the evident or probable cause of the affection—e.g. the removal of toxic influences, abstinence from excesses of all kinds, &c. Where syphilis is suspected, the appropriate treatment for this disease should be carried out. Counter-irritation, as by setons and blisters, local leeching, and aperients, are occasionally beneficial.

Hæmorrhages of the optic nerve are considered to take place occasionally, (1) into the intersheath space,[1] and (2) into the interstices of the nerve behind the disc. They are very rare. Their chief characteristic is the occurrence of sudden blindness, which is unaccompanied by any immediate physical signs of disease, either of the fundus oculi or of the brain. They are occasionally recovered from, but are generally followed by optic nerve atrophy.

Opaque Nerve Fibres.—As we have seen (p. 166), the normal optic nerve fibres, having passed through the lamina cribrosa, become, as a rule, entirely deprived of their medullary sheath, and are quite transparent both in the papilla and in the retina. In some cases, however, it is found that the medullary sheaths are persistent, and may be seen with the ophthalmoscope as opaque, brilliant, white patches, occupying more or less of the area and circumference of the disc, and extending towards the periphery of the fundus in comet-like processes. Sometimes only a single patch exists, forming a snowy-white spot on the edge of the disc; in other cases there are several of these; more usually, however, the opaque nerve fibres are most visible where the fibres are naturally most abundant, that is, in the directions

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[1] Knapp, *Archiv fur Ophth.* vol. xiv. part i. p. 252; Abadie, *Union Medicale*, Nos. 15 and 16, 1874. See also an interesting case by Dr. Silcock, *Trans. Ophth. Soc.* vol. iv.

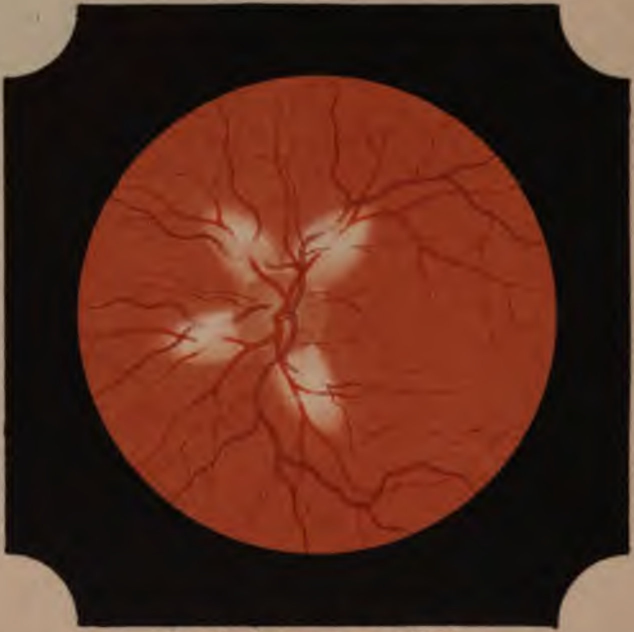

Fig. 1. Opaque nerve fibres.

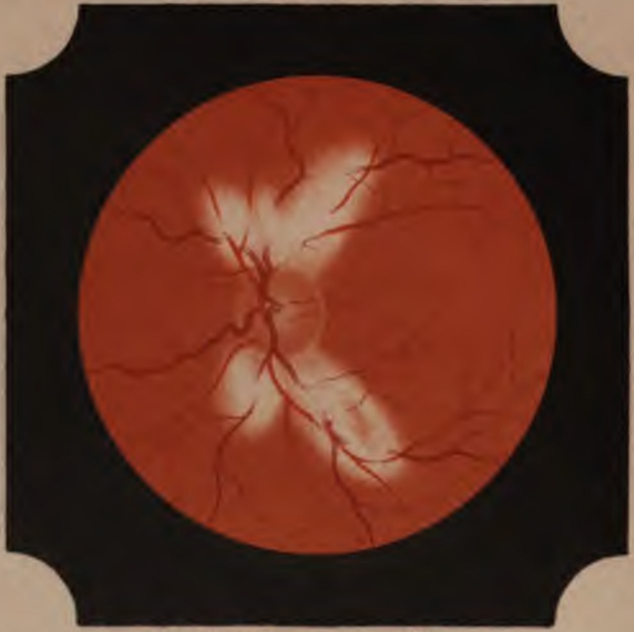

Fig. 2. Opaque nerve fibres.

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of the chief divisions of the retinal artery. In many cases they have a distinctly fibrillated appearance, more especially towards their free edges. They can be distinguished from morbid products by their brush-like extremities and the fact that *they are in front of the retinal vessels*, and some part of the retinal artery can be seen to be embedded, as it were, in the midst of the opaque fibres. They hardly ever occupy the region of the yellow spot.

Visual acuity may be quite normal as far as the opaque fibres are concerned, although this affection is often accompanied by other abnormal conditions, as hypermetropia, astigmatism, &c., which may cause deterioration of vision. *The visual field* also is normal, with the exception of the blind spot, which is generally large and irregular in proportion to the extent of the patch or patches of opacity. Figs. 1 and 2, on the opposite page, represent two unusually well-marked examples of opaque nerve fibres.

Ischæmia of the retina signifies a sudden, often total, arrest of the retinal blood-current, accompanied by entire loss of sight. It is unattended by any tissue-change of the retina and optic nerve. Both eyes are usually affected.

Symptoms.—The optic disc is pale or white. The arteries are either completely empty and reduced to fine white threads, or they may contain a delicate continuous column of blood, which is seen as a red line in the axis of each vessel, or they may be empty in certain parts and contain a little blood in other parts. The veins are generally smaller than normal, and may be more contracted in one part than another. The affection is very rare. It is said sometimes to be present during an epileptic seizure.

Embolism of the central artery of the retina may occur in the trunk or its branches, and may be complete or partial. The clot is usually just behind the lamina cribrosa.

Symptoms.—Sudden unilateral blindness, which may have been preceded by temporary obscurations. Supposing the trunk of the artery to be affected, we find by the ophthalmoscope that the arteries are extremely shrunken, and their smaller branches invisible. The veins also are reduced in size, but more so at the optic disc than in the rest of their course.

Sometimes a broken column of blood can be seen in the veins, and then during the first few days an oscillatory movement of the blood can sometimes be observed. Pressure upon the globe will not produce pulsation either of the arteries or the veins. Hæmorrhages are few and slight. The characteristic feature is a greyish-white opacity surrounding the region of the macula; this is several times the diameter of the optic disc in breadth, and is marked at its centre by a *cherry-red spot* corresponding to the position of the fovea centralis. A similar white haze often surrounds the papilla. The brilliancy of the red spot at the fovea is not of equal intensity in all cases; sometimes it is speckled with grey; usually, however, it is of a bright cherry-red colour, and is either circular or oval. Its red hue is not due to effused blood, but is produced by contrast between the white haze of the surrounding retina and the red colour of the blood in the choroid being seen through the thin fovea centralis.

After some weeks the retina becomes again clear, and the optic nerve takes on the white appearance of atrophy. The cherry-red spot at the fovea is then less marked; there are generally a few specks and traces of deposit in the retina.

As a rule there is no sight at any time, although a few cases are recorded in which some perception of light has reappeared after a short time in the outer part of the field.

Fig. 1, on the opposite page, copied from Liebreich's atlas, represents the appearance of this affection. In one or two cases that I have seen, however, the opacity of the retina in the region of the macula and of the optic disc was decidedly more marked than this, and the veins were less visible. *If a branch only* of the retinal artery is obstructed, the cloudy opacity is localised, and only the corresponding part of the retina suffers. This is indicated by a scotoma, which may vary in extent from a mere spot to half the visual field.

The causes are chiefly cardiac valvular diseases. It is also, more rarely, caused by albuminuria and advanced pregnancy. It is probable that, in many cases, as suggested by Mr. Priestley Smith ('Ophth. Review,' 1884), the clot is formed in the artery, and would therefore be more correctly termed thrombosis.

The prognosis is very bad.

Retinal Hæmorrhages may occur without inflammation. The

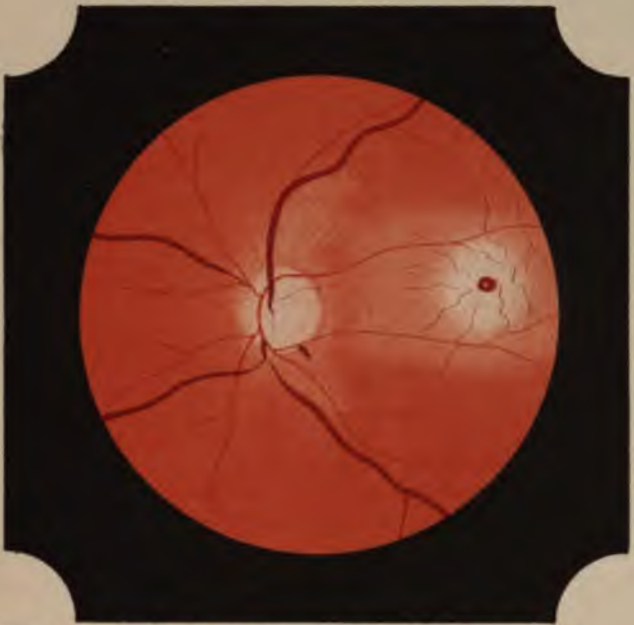

Fig. 1. Embolism of Central artery of retina (after Liebreich)

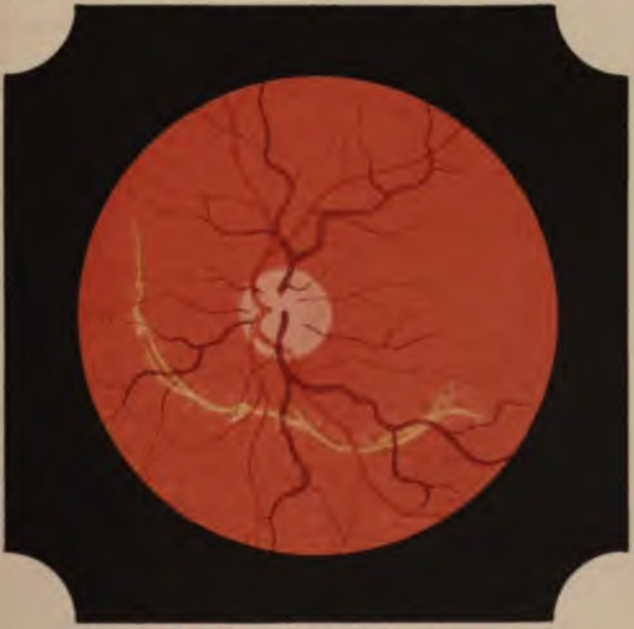

Fig. 2. Rupture of the choroid

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number, aspect, and extent of these extravasations vary indefinitely; they may be divided into superficial and deep varieties. The superficial naturally occur in the course of the vessels in the nerve-fibre layer, and hence present a striated aspect. The deeper extravasations of blood pass backwards between the fibres of Müller; they are not striated, but are seen as irregular rounded masses; they vary in volume and depth, but usually occupy only the intergranular layer. Occasionally the blood passes forwards into the vitreous body, or backwards between the retina and choroid. *Hæmorrhage in the region of the yellow spot* deserves special mention on account of its frequency and importance. This is a rounded or elliptical patch of varied extent; it is usually about three or four times the size of the optic disc. Smaller hæmorrhagic points are often seen in its neighbourhood. The retina is never raised, and the extravasation is never deep. The absence of nerve fibres, and of any considerable vessels in this region, explain these peculiarities. The frequency of return of visual acuity also shows the slightness of the lesion as regards the cones and the ganglion-cells; indeed, it is possible that the blood has not extravasated within the yellow spot, but from some marginal vessel, and that it has filtered between the retina and the vitreous body. If resorption occurs, the clot becomes decolorised centripetaliy. If the resorption be incomplete, white patches remain, mixed with more or less pigmented matter. This is after large or repeated hæmorrhages. When the macula is affected the central vision is suddenly impaired or lost. This may not be an absolute central scotoma, but is often a uniform cloud, covering objects in front of the eye. If into the periphery, the visual field is affected accordingly.

The causes of retinal hæmorrhages may be classified as follows:

1. *Injuries*, such as blows, wounds of the eye, causing sudden alteration of the intraocular tension, as when there is escape of aqueous or vitreous humour.

2. *Derangements of the vascular system.*
    - General arterial sclerosis.
    - Heart disease, especially mitral.
    - Embolism and thrombosis of small arteries.

Miliary aneurisms.
Fatty degeneration (after endarteritis).

3. *Alteration in the quality of the blood.*
    Diabetes.
    Albuminuria.
    Leucocythæmia.
    Pernicious anæmia.
    Purpura and scurvy.
    Hæmorrhagic diathesis.

Some of these conditions also give rise to inflammatory changes, and will be referred to again later on. Retinal hæmorrhage occasionally occurs in young persons. It is usually central, extensive, and relapsing. The subjects of it are generally feeble or anæmic; they are also frequently myopic.

Retinitis.—Inflammation of the retina seldom occurs idiopathically; it is usually the result of some constitutional dyscrasia, as albuminuria, glycosuria, syphilis; or else it is caused by extension of an inflammation from the neighbouring choroid or ciliary processes. We shall consider retinitis under three chief headings:

1. *Albuminuric retinitis* and its allied forms occurring in glycosuria, leucocythæmia, &c.
2. *Syphilitic retinitis.*
3. *Pigmentary retinitis.*

Albuminuric Retinitis.—*Ophthalmoscopic signs.*—In the early stage of the affection we find a dull grey haze all over the central region of the fundus. The papilla is somewhat swollen and its outline blurred. There are generally some hæmorrhages in the region of the disc, and a few *soft-edged* white patches can be seen in various parts of the retina. After a few weeks, when the affection is established, we find (1) *White spots or patches*, sometimes as small as a pin's head, more or less collected into groups around the yellow spot (see fig. 1, opposite p. 190). Sometimes they assume the form of white or yellowish-white striæ, arranged in a radiating manner around the same focus. Larger spots than these of the macular region are found scattered over the fundus; when occurring in the vicinity of a vessel, they are usually found to cover it. (2) *Hæmorrhages* are usually found; these may be small and point-like, but they are usually striated and torch-like in appearance. They vary in colour according to the length of time which may have elapsed since their extravasation, the most recent being of a bright arterial red colour, whilst the oldest are of a yellowish-white, waxy appearance. As a rule they run parallel with the larger vessels, although the particular vessel from which the blood is extravasated can seldom be seen. When large they are irregular in shape, and extend to the deeper layers of the retina. (3) *The optic papilla* may be only slightly affected, but is usually swollen, hazy, and blurred in outline. In occasional cases there is perivascularitis, in which the arteries or veins, or both, appear as opaque white streaks, or present a whitish halo along their course through which the contained blood can be dimly seen. Detachment of the retina sometimes occurs, but it is not common. In most cases we find that one or other of these changes predominates, and, according to the most conspicuous feature, Dr. Gowers [1] proposes to distinguish four types of cases—the degenerative, the hæmorrhagic, the inflammatory, and the neuritic.

Both eyes are always affected, but the lesion is almost always more marked in the one eye than in the other.

Functional disturbances do not always correspond with the ophthalmoscopic signs. It is not uncommon to find considerable retinal disturbance with only slight amblyopia; and on the other hand, the retina may appear to be but slightly affected, whilst the patient can hardly see sufficiently to find his way about. The gravity of the functional disturbance depends greatly upon the region affected; so long as the yellow-spot region remains intact the visual acuity is tolerably good, but as soon as this part is attacked the central vision immediately suffers.

Fig. 1, opposite page 190, is taken from a case of chronic Bright's disease which was under my care at the Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital. The papilla is swollen, and its outline quite indistinguishable. The retina is hazy, and the retinal vessels obscured in certain parts. Several recent elongated and torch-like hæmorrhages are seen running parallel to the large vessels. The most striking feature in the case, however, is the presence of numerous white spots occupying the region of the macula, and of larger patches of a similar nature towards the periphery.

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[1] *Medical Ophthalmoscopy*, p. 185.

Fig. 2 of the same plate was taken from a case of advanced Bright's disease. The drawing was made by Mr. G. L. Johnson and myself (from nature). It shows large hæmorrhages in various parts of the fundus, whitish spots in the yellow-spot region, and, what is most remarkable, it presents opaque white streaks in the position of the arteries. This case was under the care of Dr. Mules of Manchester, who has already published it with drawings.[1]

Prognosis.—The relation between the progress of the kidney affection and that of the retinitis is not constant. With the improvement of the renal disease there is usually a tendency towards subsidence of the swelling, absorption of the deposits and extravasations, and recovery of vision. The lesion of the kidney may remain stationary or become aggravated, whilst that of the retina may disappear, and vision be re-established. Even where the retinal deposits persist there is sometimes a very considerable improvement in vision. On the other hand, the urine may be almost free from albumen, but the retinal affection get worse and worse. As a rule, in the milder forms of albuminuria the lesions of the retina disappear and the sight is restored; but in the severer cases, where there has been swelling of the optic disc, and œdema of the retina, the loss of vision is very great, and is not likely to improve, although it may remain stationary. Should severe atrophic changes of the optic nerve supervene, the sight may be permanently reduced to an extreme degree ($V = \frac{6}{60}$, J 20, or even fingers only).

In all cases where albuminuric retinitis is suspected, the urine should be *repeatedly* examined, the absence of albumen on one occasion being insufficient to disprove the existence of renal disease.

Pathology.—Albuminuric retinitis is most commonly found in the advanced form of contracted granular kidney disease, although it is not a very frequent complication of that affection (probably not more than 8 or 10 per cent.). It occurs, how-

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[1] Vide *Trans. Ophth. Soc.* vol. ii. p. 47.

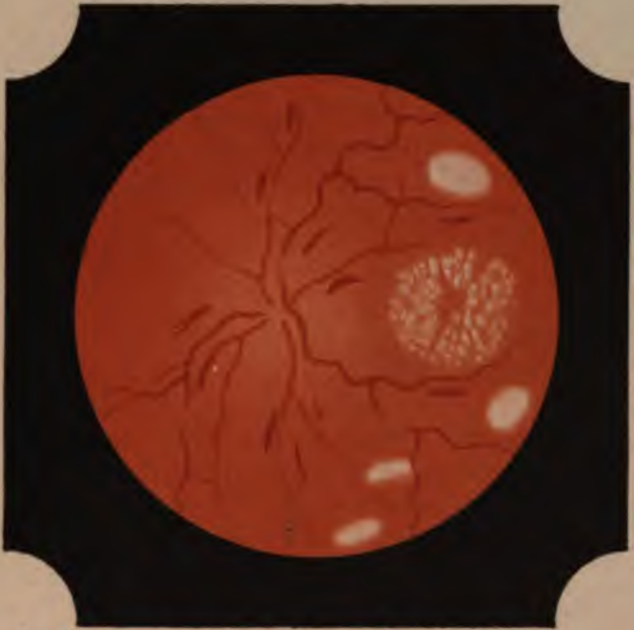

Fig. 1. Abuminuric retinitis with hæmorrhages.

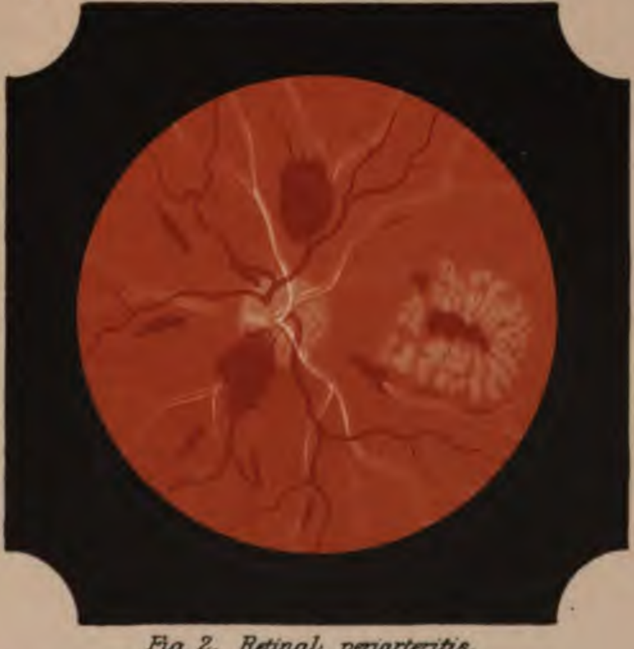

Fig 2. Retinal periarteritis.

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ever, in other renal affections, and in the albuminuria of pregnancy. It is rare in children, but sometimes follows scarlatinal nephritis.

On microscopic examination of the affected optic disc and retina, we find (1) The axis cylinders of the nerves in the retina are swollen and opaque in parts. (2) *The arteries of the retina* present thickened patches in certain parts of their course, and sections through these nodules show a general thickening of all their coats, especially of the subendothelial part of the intima, in consequence of which the outside diameter of each vessel is much increased, and its lumen diminished or entirely obliterated; indeed, according to Brailey and Edmunds,[1] some impervious arteries are generally to be found in a state of fibrous or structureless degeneration. *The capillaries* also present a marked degree of structureless thickening; although thickened, they are nevertheless disposed to rupture, and this is probably the source of the hæmorrhages. (3) *Blood corpuscles* are found more abundantly in the region of these thickened patches than in other parts of the retina; they are found not only in the inner layers of the retina, where the capillaries exist, but also in the intergranular layer. After a time the hæmorrhages thus extravasated are seen as *crystalline masses* and *fatty substances*. (4) *Inflammatory nuclei*, probably of the neuroglia, are found in the inner layers of the retina. (5) *The fibres of Müller are greatly thickened*, and separated by sero-albuminous fluid. Fig. 3, opposite p. 168, is taken from a case of retinitis occurring in chronic Bright's disease. The section shows most of the characters above mentioned. The nerve fibres in the innermost layer are thickened, and that layer is seen to contain an abnormal number of inflammatory nuclei, in addition to numerous red blood corpuscles. In the same part one of the arteries is seen to be greatly thickened in structure. In the intergranular layer numerous blood corpuscles are seen, also crystalline masses of altered blood or other exudation. Fig. 2 in the same plate shows a patch of hæmorrhage taken from a retina in which the signs of inflammation were less marked. The presence of an aggregation of red blood corpuscles is the only abnormal sign.

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[1] Vide *Ophth. Trans.* vol. i. p. 45.

Treatment.—The general treatment must be directed to the renal affection. Locally, the use of smoked glasses, and rest to the eyes, is all that can be advised.

Diabetic Retinitis is very rare, and is so similar to the albuminuric form that it is almost impossible to distinguish the one from the other by means of the ophthalmoscope alone. The prognosis is very unfavourable. The treatment must be entirely directed to the diabetes. Local blood-letting, by leeching or other means, blisters, scarifications, &c., are more likely to do harm than good.

Leucocythæmic Retinitis was first noticed and described by Liebreich. It is characterised by the existence of yellowish, rounded, hæmorrhagic spots or patches; these occur in the region of the macula, and at the periphery of the fundus; they are perceptibly prominent, and, when examined by the direct method, they may be seen to project into the vitreous cavity. In the majority of cases whitish streaks can also be seen along the course of the retinal vessels. Various scotomata, corresponding to the position of the whitish patches, are found to exist in the visual field. The normal orange-red colour of the whole fundus is frequently changed to that of a paler orange-yellow. The spots and streaks are due to accumulations of leucocytes which have escaped from the walls of the vessels by diapedesis, and the change of tint of the whole fundus is caused by the altered condition of the blood in this disease (O. Becker).

This affection is by no means constant in leucocythæmia; it only occurs in from 20 to 30 per cent. of the cases, and these are mainly in the splenic form. Treatment must be general.

Syphilitic Retinitis is mostly associated with, and secondary to, choroiditis. A description of *syphilitic choroido-retinitis* will be found on p. 138. Occasionally, however, we meet with isolated syphilitic retinitis.

Symptoms.—*Ophthalmoscopic examination* shows a *cloudy opacity*; this may be confined to the region of the yellow spot and optic disc, or may extend over a larger area of the fundus, or it may follow the course of the larger retinal vessels in the form of cloudy streaks. The periphery of the retina is usually clear and visible. Occasionally the disc is swollen.

Hæmorrhages are very rare. Very often, as in choroido-retinitis, we find numerous fine 'dust-like' opacities situated in the deeper portions of the *vitreous*, near the posterior pole of the eye. This *vitreous haze* is apt to be mistaken for optic neuritis or neuro-retinitis, unless care is taken to use the plane mirror in the manner indicated on p. 135. Larger floating opacities of the vitreous are also common, and not unfrequently we may detect the signs of recent or old iritis in the pupil. The smallest traces of pigment upon the front of the lens, or of adhesion of the iris to the lens, are enough to establish this.

Failure of vision is very marked from the first, and may, if the case is left untreated, go on to complete blindness. This failure is often greater than the ophthalmoscopic changes would lead us to anticipate. The patient also complains of fog before the eyes, muscæ volitantes, and of inability to see in a dull light. There is always torpor of the retina, which often goes on to absolute *night-blindness*. This form of retinitis usually attacks one eye at a time, but, in the absence of proper treatment, it sooner or later comes on in the second eye. It is one of the secondary symptoms of syphilis, and usually appears between the sixth and eighteenth month after the primary affection. Its course is usually protracted over many months, and evinces a tendency to relapses and exacerbations after slight temporary improvements. When seen early and treated by mercurials, great benefit may be effected, but with neglect of treatment, and under bad hygienic conditions, it generally gets worse, and goes on to more or less complete atrophy of the optic nerve and retina.

Pigmentary Retinitis.—The chief *symptoms* are: (1) Pigmentary deposits in the peripheral portions of the retina and other ophthalmoscopic changes; (2) Night-blindness; (3) Concentric limitation of the visual field.

1. *The pigmentary deposits* in the retina may be easily overlooked in the earlier stages of the affection, inasmuch as the central portion of the fundus then appears quite normal. On examining the periphery of the retina the appearance presented in fig. 1, opposite p. 194, will be observed. The masses of brownish-black pigment here shown look very similar to the lacunæ and canaliculi of bone when seen under the

microscope. They may be few in number, and scattered about the periphery; but more usually they are numerous, of moderate size, and their arrangement corresponds more or less to the direction of the smaller retinal arteries. In the later stages of the affection the pigmentary deposits approach nearer to the central portions of the fundus; they also become larger, and are more isolated.

In the early stages the ophthalmoscope reveals no change in the optic disc and yellow spot regions, nor are the blood-vessels perceptibly altered; but, as the disease advances, the disc becomes gradually pale, and finally assumes a yellowish waxy appearance; the blood-vessels also undergo gradual diminution in calibre, and are finally reduced to mere threads, or become altogether invisible. In this last stage the pigmentary layer of the retina often disappears altogether, by which the vessels and intervascular spaces of the choroid are rendered plainly visible. Fig. 2, on the opposite page, represents an advanced case of this kind, in which there are waxy pallor of the disc, reduction of the retinal vessels to mere threads, and total disappearance of the pigment layer of the retina. The stroma of the choroid is visible in the form of yellowish wavy streaks, and the large masses of pigment are plainly seen. Posterior polar cataract and opacities of the vitreous are frequently present in the later stages.

2. *Night-blindness* constitutes a marked and very early symptom of retinitis pigmentosa. Visual acuity is usually good in *bright daylight*; but directly the sun sets, or if the patient is placed in a dimly-lighted room, he is more or less completely deprived of the power of vision.

3. *Contraction of the visual field* is always present; it consists in concentric limitation of the fields for white and for colours around the central region. This contraction also bears a definite relation to the intensity of the illumination employed in the use of the perimeter; the feebler the illumination the more contracted does the field become. Fig. 2, opposite p. 222, represents a tracing taken from a case of moderately advanced retinitis pigmentosa in bright daylight. The central vision was fairly good ($V=\frac{6}{18}$), but the patient could only distinguish objects situated close to the visual axis.

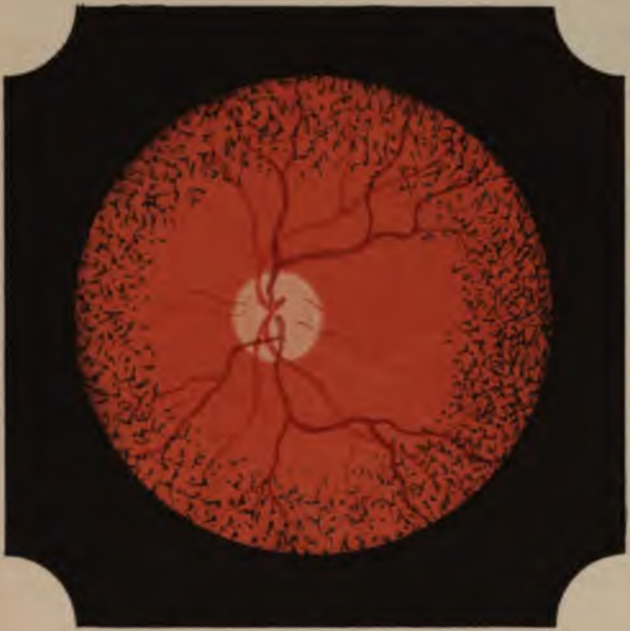

Fig. 1. Retinitis Pigmentosa.

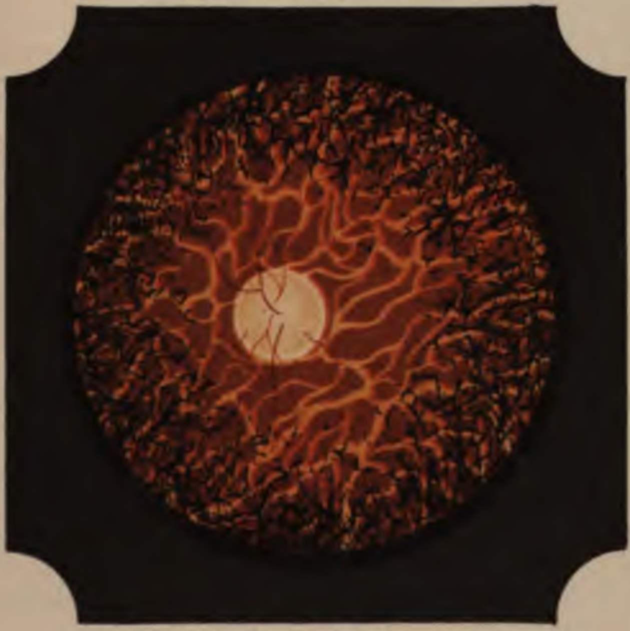

Fig. 2. Retinitis Pigmentosa. (advanced stage.)

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These functional derangements—night-blindness and contraction of the visual field—are extremely distressing. From the earliest date of the disease it becomes most difficult for the patients to see their way about after dark, or even in the twilight; and with the advance of contraction of the visual field, there is proportionate difficulty in indirect vision. The patient can then only see the object directly looked at; his freedom of movement is consequently much impaired, because he is compelled constantly to turn his head or his eyes in different directions in order to acquaint himself with surrounding objects. After a time central vision, even with good light, becomes affected, and in the end total blindness ensues.

The symptoms usually begin in early life, while in a few cases no trouble is noticed until the age of fifteen or twenty years. The consummation of the disease generally comes after the age of twenty or thirty years. Both eyes are similarly and simultaneously attacked.

Histologically the affected portions of the retina show complete atrophy of the nerve elements (rods, cones, and fibres). There is interstitial development of connective tissue. The walls of the vessels are found to have undergone hyaline thickening, by which their lumen is greatly diminished; the finer arterioles of the periphery being completely transformed into tracts of connective tissue. In the tissues surrounding the vessels and in the substance of their walls are found numerous pigment cells. The choroid appears to be unaffected in true pigmentary retinitis, although it often presents lesions in syphilitic choroido-retinitis.

The causes are unknown. *Heredity* has a great influence. It is frequently found in several members of the same family. *Consanguinity in the parents* has been proved to exist in about 25 per cent. of the cases (Leber, Hutchinson), and congenital syphilis has been put forward as a cause (Galezowski), but is not generally accepted.

The diagnosis is easy in ordinary cases. Difficulty sometimes arises in cases of advanced syphilitic choroiditis where there is much pigment. In true retinitis pigmentosa there should be *no patches of choroidal atrophy.*

Prognosis is unfavourable, but the rate of progress is usually slow, and the patient may go on to the age of fifty or sixty before he is absolutely blind.

Treatment is unavailing. A few cases have been somewhat improved in visual acuity and in visual field by galvanism.[1] Beyond this a tonic regimen and a proper care of what sight remains are the only means in our power.

Detachment of the Retina.—*Symptoms.*—*By direct ophthalmoscopic examination* various appearances are presented, according to the nature and quantity of the effused subretinal fluid, and the length of time the detachment has existed. The detachment may be slight or extensive, it may involve the whole or a part of the retina, it may occur at any part of the fundus, but is usually situated near the equator at the lower part. Whenever the retina is separated from the choroid, that part of the fundus is changed in appearance. When the detachment is recent and the retina retains its transparency, the alteration in focus, the dark colour and the wavy outline of the vessels, are the only signs. When the detachment has existed for some time the normal orange-red aspect of the corresponding part of the fundus is generally found to assume a greyish, semi-transparent, or opaque appearance. When the subretinal effusion is slight, and the retina transparent, there is still some red reflex from the choroid. When the detached portion of the retina is opaque this reflex is altogether absent. When the detachment has existed for a considerable period it is usually found to float up and down in the vitreous with quick movement of the globe. When a considerable portion of the retina is separated, its surface is found to present an undulating, rippled appearance. (See figures 1 and 2 on the opposite page.) The line of demarcation from the rest of the fundus is usually distinct. The retinal vessels are seen to follow the undulations; their colour is usually darker than normal, and they appear to be diminished in size; at the posterior edge of the detachment they suddenly dip and disappear. In thus examining the detached portion of the retina by the direct method it must be remembered that whilst this is in focus, and can be best seen by a strong convex lens, the rest of the fundus is out of focus, and may require even

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[1] Gunn, *Oph. Hosp. Reports*, vol. x. p. 161.

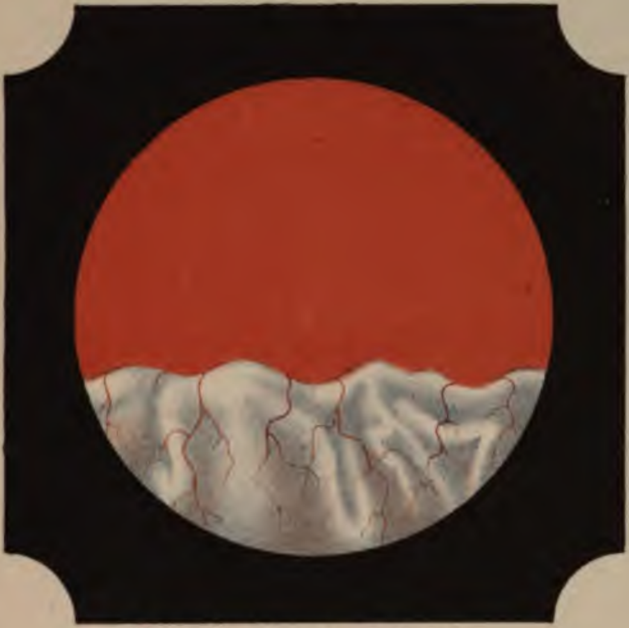

Fig. 1. Detachment of Retina.

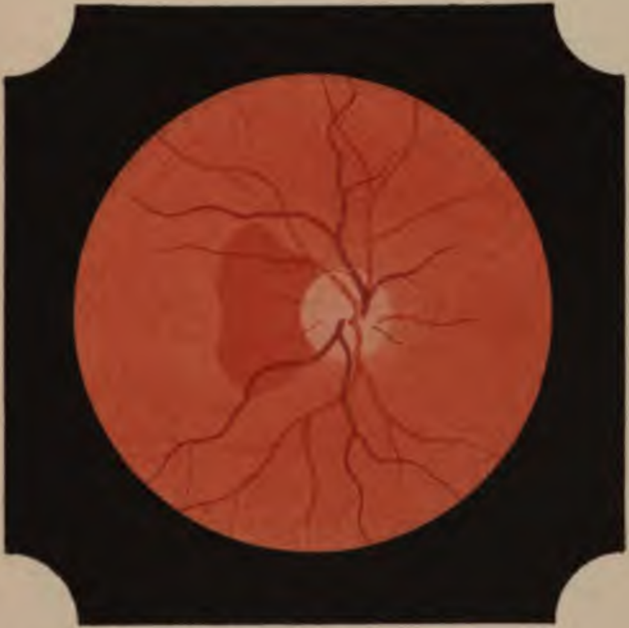

Fig. 2. Slight sub-retinal effusion.

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a concave lens in order to be properly examined. *By the indirect method* the greyish or bluish-grey aspect of the detachment is less apparent than by the direct; and unless the media are very clear and the detachment sharply limited it becomes difficult to ascertain the extent of the lesion by this method. In all cases the pupil should be dilated by atropine or homatropine. Sometimes the detachment extends as far as the edge of the disc, so that a part of the latter is obscured, whilst the remainder can be seen. Occasionally the detachment extends to the whole retina, which is then pushed forwards in a funnel-shaped manner, so that all fundus-reflex is destroyed.

The functional troubles of this lesion are severe and characteristic. The onset is usually sudden, but only one eye may be affected, so that the patient is not always aware of the change, and may not discover it until some time afterwards. Generally, however, the patient notices a sort of cloud appear before the eye, which obscures the sight. The visual field (see p. 213) is found to present a scotoma corresponding to the detached portion of the retina. A careful examination in this direction should be made, inasmuch as the scotoma often extends over a greater area than the corresponding apparent detachment; we may thus learn that the adjacent parts are threatened with further separation, which indeed has already commenced. Objects sometimes appear to be distorted in indifferent ways (metamorphopsia).

Premonitory symptoms, as muscæ volitantes, are sometimes observed; patients also complain of subjective sensations of flashes of light. The fluid beneath the retina is albuminous in nature; it usually contains blood, lymph, fat, pigment, and epithelial cells. The vitreous is often more fluid than normal, and usually contains floating opacities. After prolonged separation, but not at first, the structure of the retina becomes altered.

The causes of detachment are various. The most common is the posterior sclero-choroiditis, which is allied with *progressive myopia*. *Traumatism* may produce detachment either immediately or at a remote period. Inflammation of orbital tissues, intraocular tumours, or inflammatory products in the vitreous, also not unfrequently cause detachment at some period of their existence.

The progress is generally unfavourable. Even in the best cases, where the disease remains stationary, the vision is always defective, and we are never certain that the affection may not extend to the rest of the retina. A few cases of spontaneous recovery are on record, and some good has been effected by treatment. It must be borne in mind that where one eye only is affected, the second eye is generally in danger of a similar attack.

The treatment.—The eyes should be rested, and protected from the light by means of a large shade, or by smoked glasses. The general health should be supported by a tonic regimen. The hypodermic injection of hydrochlorate of pilocarpine (F. 32) has been recently tried in some cases with good results, in others without benefit. Operative procedures of various kinds have been performed by Sichel, Bowman, De Wecker, Graefe, Hirschberg, and others, but without very satisfactory results. *Simple puncture* is easily performed. Having ascertained by ophthalmoscopic examination the exact position of the detachment, the eyelids are separated by a speculum, and the globe is held firmly by the fixation forceps in such a position that the detached portion is brought towards the front; a broad needle or a Sichel's cataract knife is then plunged through the conjunctiva and the tunics of the globe into the middle of the detachment; in doing this the point of the instrument should be directed towards the centre of the globe—that is, away from the lens. In the act of *slowly* withdrawing the instrument, its blade may be half rotated whilst between the lips of the wound; this will facilitate the escape of the sub-retinal fluid. After the operation a light compress is applied and the patient kept quietly in bed. This method has in a few instances been attended by partial replacement of the retina, considerable improvement in visual acuity, and diminution of the visual scotoma. In the majority of cases, however, it has been of no perceptible benefit, and in a few the eye has become much worse after the puncture.

De Wecker introduces a gold wire suture through the sclerotic and choroid with the view of establishing a continuous drainage. This method has not been generally adopted, and some cases of destructive irido-choroiditis have been caused by it (Noyes).

Prophylactic measures would appear to be most strongly indicated in this affection. In the case of high myopia, for example, it is of the greatest importance that the error of refraction should be corrected by the use of proper spectacles.

Glioma of the Retina.—*Symptoms.*—It usually occurs in early life, either intra-uterine, or during the first three or four years; occasional cases have been recorded up to ten years. *In the early stage* the ophthalmoscope reveals one or more brilliant white patches in some part of the retina. These patches differ considerably from those of retinitis in being of a brighter, more metallic lustre. The tension is normal (Tn) or slightly diminished (Brailey). There are no external changes in the appearance of the eye, no pain is complained of; the eye is quite blind, but this is not discovered owing to the youth of the patient; hence the disease is rarely seen at this early period; it usually passes unnoticed until the growth has become sufficiently large to be visible through the pupil; it is then detected by the parents, and, sooner or later, the patient is brought for advice. In this, *the second stage*, the pupil of the affected eye usually becomes considerably dilated. The tension is increased (T + (?), T + 1). The pupil no longer has its normal black appearance, but presents a white, pink, or yellowish lustrous look. *By focal illumination* the tumour may be observed to project into the vitreous cavity; the surface may be smooth or nodulated; and some blood-vessels can generally be seen upon the white background. *By the ophthalmoscope* a similar condition is observed. The lens and vitreous are usually clear. In this stage there is often pain in the eye, and inflammatory symptoms are liable to supervene in the form of congestion of the scleral vessels. As the growth increases the lens is pushed forward, the anterior chamber becomes shallow, the cornea becomes dull and opaque, and loses its sensitiveness; the eye, in fact, becomes glaucomatous. As the growth continues to increase in volume the tunics of the globe can no longer sustain the intraocular pressure, and usually become ruptured in the region of the sclero-corneal junction. In this *the third stage*, the tension is suddenly decreased, and the disease rapidly extends to the surrounding parts, and backwards along the course of the optic nerve to the brain.

Pathology.—When an eye with glioma is opened during the second stage the tumour presents a yellowish-white appearance; it contains blood-vessels, hæmorrhages are seen, and in some parts there are calcareous particles. *Histologically* this new growth consists of small round cells (fig. 4, on the opposite page), exactly similar to those found in the granular layers of the normal retina. Each cell is a rounded body about $\frac{8}{1000}$ mm. in diameter, and contains a large, freely staining nucleus, in the centre of which are a few granules. Blood-vessels are found in the tumour; they are not in actual contact with the cells, but usually have a distinct sheath, probably a lymph-space; outside this clear space is found a zone of cells which stain freely; beyond these the staining becomes more feeble, and the cells are found to have undergone either fatty or calcareous degeneration. Finally the vessels become destroyed, and the whole glioma degenerates from absence of blood supply. If we examine the free or spreading edge of the tumour, we find that the granular layers and the layer of nerve-cells are the parts first attacked (see figs. 2 and 3, on the opposite page). Two chief kinds of glioma are recognised, viz. *G. exophytum* and *G. endophytum*. *Glioma exophytum* commences in the inner granular layer, which becomes thickened to join the outer; a diffuse thickening of the whole retina is formed, with nebular bulging on its outer side, from which the disease extends to the choroid. *Glioma endophytum* commences in the nuclear and nerve-fibre layers of the retina, whence it usually extends along the optic nerve. The parts of the retina which are not *at first* attacked would seem to be the rods and cones, the molecular layers, the system of Müller's fibres, the basement or limiting membranes, and the pars ciliaris retinæ. The structures which are attacked appear to be the nerve elements and the very delicate neuroglia. *The mode of extension* of glioma is important. *Its chief direction is along the fibres of the optic nerve.* Here the cells first plug up the optic disc so as to push back the lamina cribrosa; after a time they appear on the outside of the latter, and appear in clusters occupying the bundles of

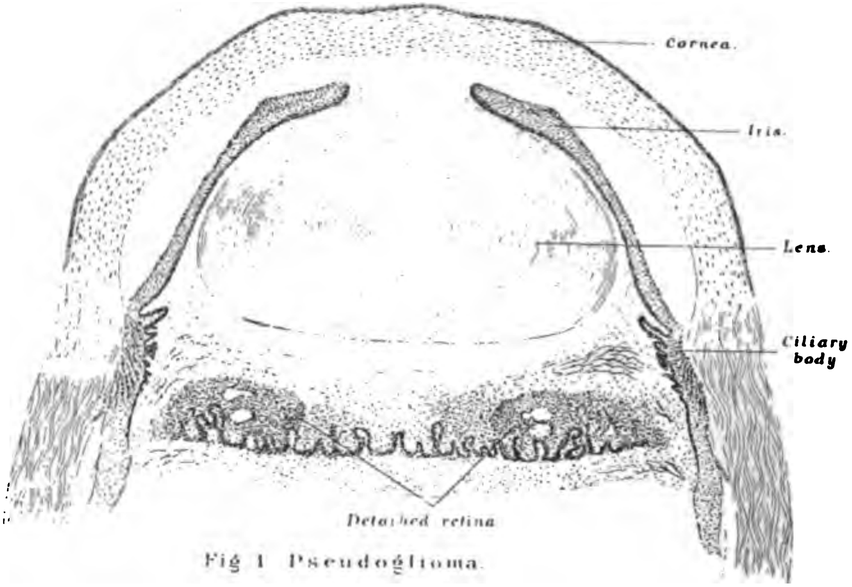

Fig 1 Pseudoglioma.

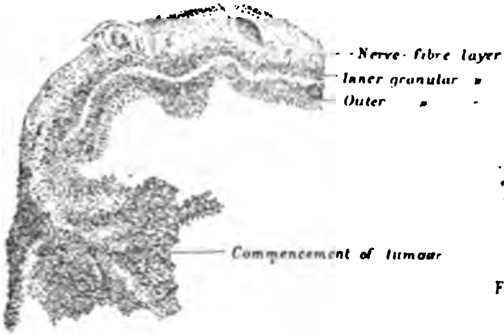

Fig 2. Glioma of retina × about 60

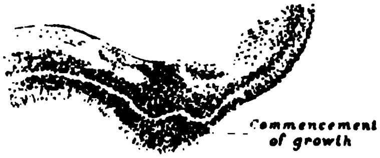

Fig.3 Glioma of retina × about 60.

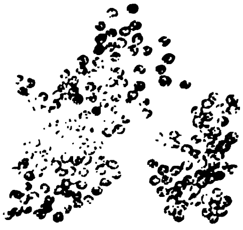

Fig 4. Cells of glioma ab 160 diam

nerve-fibres; the coarse trabecular tissue is but little affected, even in advanced cases. The central artery and vein are not attacked. From the optic nerve the cells sometimes get into the nerve sheath, and thence extend to the intracranial meninges, occasionally also to the diploë of the cranial bones. Sometimes the child has glioma in the other eye, but we have no evidence to prove that the disease spreads from one eye to the other.

Another mode of extension is by way of the choroid; glioma exophytum usually spreads in this way. The part of the choroid first invaded is that nearest to the optic disc. When the cells get into the choroid itself they immediately increase by multiplication, and the tissue of the choroid is destroyed, its place being occupied by a thicker layer of glioma cells. These cells then extend to the sclerotic, which is attacked in the direction of its component fibres. They then pass forwards along the supra-choroidal lymph-space, through the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum into the anterior chamber. They may thus push back the lens; sometimes they cause necrosis of the cornea. When not in the anterior chamber they may cause forward bulging of the lens. The vitreous undergoes atrophy, and causes a peculiar wavy appearance of the retina (detachment).

Metastatic gliomatous tumours are said to occur in the liver and other parts, but these are very rare, if they occur at all. No new growth similar to glioma is found in any other part of the body except the nervous system. Glioma was formerly called carcinoma, fungus hæmatodes, &c. At present it is considered to grow from the delicate connective tissue of the neuroglia, and ought therefore to be called a sarcoma. *Heredity* appears to play an important *rôle* in the existence of these tumours; two or more children of the same parents may suffer, and a history of cancer of the eye during the early part of the parent's life may sometimes be elicited.

Diagnosis is usually quite easy. Given a lustrous, white, or yellowish-white tumour, occurring in a young child, where there have been no perceptible inflammatory symptoms, and where the intraocular tension is increased, we have no hesitatien in pronouncing this to be glioma.

In suppurative hyalitis, which may have disappeared leaving the retina detached, in exudative cyclitis, and in exudative choroiditis, a condition not unfrequently presents which is somewhat similar to glioma; such cases are known by the vague term **pseudo-glioma.** Fig. 1, opposite p. 200, shows a section of such a case; there had been exudative inflammation of the ciliary region and choroid, the vitreous had shrunken, and the retina was pushed forwards nearly up to the lens, where it appeared as a *dull* yellowish mass. In such cases (pseudo-glioma) the reflex is seldom bright, the tension is usually *reduced*, and there is generally a history or some other symptom of previous inflammation in the eye. The chief difference, however, consists in the appearance of the iris; in glioma the whole of this is pushed forwards towards the cornea, but in the so-called pseudo-glioma the contraction of the inflammatory products in the vitreous causes retraction of the ciliary edge of the iris, so that the latter presents the appearance of an inclined plane as seen in fig. 1, opposite page 200.

The treatment of glioma consists in *the immediate removal* of the whole of the affected globe and as much of its optic nerve as possible. By this means the disease is prevented from spreading backwards to the brain and in other directions, so that although the eye is lost the patient's life may be saved. After excision of the globe in this manner, the cut end of the optic nerve should be examined microscopically. If this be of normal size, and contains no glioma cells, we may hope for a good result. If slightly swollen, and a few of the nuclear bodies are found, the result is doubtful. If much swollen, and numerous nuclear bodies are found, there will probably be a return of the disease in the optic nerve in the course of a few months.

When the disease has perforated the ocular tunics and affected the surrounding parts, the whole of the contents of the orbit must be extirpated, although the prognosis is extremely grave.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON AMAUROSIS, AMBLYOPIA, AND SOME FUNCTIONAL DISORDERS OF VISION.

Amaurosis signifies loss of sight without perceptible ocular lesions; with the advance of knowledge in ophthalmology that term is becoming less and less required, and is gradually falling into disuse. Several grades of amaurosis are recognised.

In the first grade, which is generally called *Amblyopia*, there is merely diminution of visual acuity; the patient is not able to read small print with the amblyopic eye, but he can distinguish large objects, and find his way about.

In the second grade there is only *quantitative* perception of light. The patient can only distinguish light from darkness.

In the third grade, usually called *complete* or *absolute amaurosis*, both qualitative and quantitative perception of light have disappeared.

Tobacco Amblyopia (Tobacco Amaurosis).—*Symptoms*. This affection is characterised by diminished acuity of *central* vision, one of the earliest symptoms of which is the inability to distinguish colours over a small central portion of the field. There is progressive failure in both eyes, which, in the course of a few weeks, or months, may have become so marked that the patient can only distinguish $\frac{6}{36}$ or $\frac{6}{60}$, or No. 6 or 9 of the Snellen reading types. The periphery of the visual field is not affected either for white or for colours, but the *central portion* always presents a scotoma in which the power of distinguishing green and red is very defective. If the extent of this scotoma is measured by testing the patient with the perimeter (see p. 215), it will be generally found to be of oval shape, with its long diameter transverse, and to include the central portion of the visual field. The subjects of this affection are most troubled by bright light and by distant objects; they can generally see better in twilight than in open day, and they find some help for this defect in the use of neutral tinted glasses, by which the brighter rays are cut off. The peripheral portions of the field being good, they experience no difficulty in seeing surrounding objects; they therefore differ somewhat in manner from patients who are suffering from diseases in which contraction of the visual field forms a prominent feature, such as advanced retinitis pigmentosa, optic atrophy, and chronic glaucoma.

The Ophthalmoscope reveals nothing of importance in the condition of the fundus. Occasionally we find hyperæmia of the optic disc, and some enlargement of the retinal veins. In advanced cases there is sometimes a pale (atrophic) condition of the optic disc.

The onset of the disease is very insidious; in some cases hardly any other symptoms beyond the visual derangements are to be found, in others there may be frontal headache, nervousness, insomnia, and loss of appetite.

Causes.—This form of amblyopia is now generally admitted to be produced chiefly, if not entirely, by tobacco intoxication. The subjects of it are generally males, at or beyond middle life, who have long been in the habit of smoking large quantities of strong tobacco. Unfortunately many excessive smokers are also accustomed to free indulgence in alcoholic liquors, so that it is difficult to make out how far the defective vision may be due to the direct influence of alcohol. Mackenzie and Sichel long ago pointed out the deleterious effect upon vision of the excessive use of tobacco; the latter believed that any person smoking more than half an ounce of tobacco daily would experience considerable defect both of sight and of memory. He mentions a case[1] of a man who, not content with smoking throughout the entire day, assumed the pipe at intervals during the night to soothe his wakeful hours. He became completely blind, but recovered his sight after total abstinence from smoking, combined with antiphlogistic treatment. In speaking of this affection Nettleship[2] says, 'My own opinion, based on the examination of a large number of cases, is that tobacco is the essential agent, and that the disuse or diminished use of tobacco is the one essential measure of treatment.' It is but fair to add, however, that competent observers are far from unanimous on this subjeect.

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[1] *Annales d'Oculistique*, vol. liii. p. 122.

[2] *Diseases of the Eye*, 1882, p. 217.

The treatment consists in the removal of the cause and the improvement of the general condition of the patient. *Total and unconditional abstinence from all forms of tobacco and alcoholic liquors* should be insisted on. The patient will be greatly chagrined at the sudden cessation of these, to him poisonous, habits; he will beg hard to be allowed just one cigar and one glass of wine per diem; but he must not be humoured. Total abstinence is by far the most certain and speedy mode of cure; it should of course be combined with a tonic regimen. Nutritious food, plenty of exercise in the open air, sedatives at night if necessary to produce sleep, strychnine and iron internally, and similar remedies, are essentially helpful, and will generally restore the visual acuity, disperse the central scotoma for colours, and greatly improve the patient's general physique in the course of six to twelve weeks. As a rule the results of treatment are more pronounced in proportion to the rapidity of failure, and to the shortness of the duration of the disease. In old-standing chronic cases, and especially where there is some pallor of the optic disc, the improvement is less marked, and perfect vision ($V=\frac{6}{6}$) may not be re-established.

Some practitioners are doubtful as to the propriety of suddenly cutting off *all* alcoholic stimulants from habitual drinkers. I was for some years associated with Mr. Gibson in the treatment of prisoners at Newgate, where we had a constant influx of smokers and drinkers of the heaviest kind; our treatment in every case was similar to that above indicated, and the result was invariably beneficial.

Amaurosis is occasionally seen in young infants. The aimless movements of the eyes (nystagmus) generally first attract the mother's attention, and it is then observed that the child takes no notice of a light. In such cases the fundus is sometimes normal, not unfrequently the discs have a greyish appearance, and their edges are a little blurred; later on they usually become atrophic. In these cases there is sometimes a history of convulsions, and often there is evidence of inherited syphilis. The prognosis is absolutely unfavourable.

Amblyopia, from suppression of the image in one eye, is often found in cases of strabismus. (*See* Strabismus.)

Hemiopia or Hemianopsia is characterised by the loss of one half of the visual field. It usually occurs in both eyes, and is then indicative of some lesion at or beyond the optic commissure. When only one eye is affected the line of separation between the part of the visual field which is lost and that which is retained is generally irregular; the affection is then the result of some lesion of the optic nerve in front of the commissure, or of the retina itself.

The majority of cases of hemiopia affecting both eyes are either *right* or *left* lateral—that is, there is (homonymous) loss of the right or of the left half of the visual field in each eye. The right half of each visual field of course corresponds to the left half of each retina, and *vice versâ*. As a rule the point of fixation lies in the part which retains its functions in both eyes, but occasionally the line of demarcation seems accurately to bisect it. Occasionally both temporal halves, and, very rarely indeed, both the nasal halves, are lost.

The symptoms of lateral hemiopia.—The patient usually complains of sudden diminution or disturbance of vision. He only sees half of an object placed immediately in front of him. In right lateral hemiopia there is marked inconvenience in reading. This is because in order to read with fluency it is necessary that words should be seen which are a little in advance of those which are being pronounced; when the right half of each visual field is lost the words cannot be seen until their image falls on the yellow spot of the corresponding half of each visual field. The line of demarcation between the sensitive and the inactive portions of the retina is usually vertical, either at, or just internal to, the yellow spot. The transition from the one part to the other may be quite abrupt, or it may be gradual.

Fig. 2 on the opposite page represents a chart of the visual field for white, blue, red, and green, which was taken from the right eye of a patient suffering from left lateral (homonymous) hemiopia. By comparing this with the normal visual field represented in fig. 1, opposite p. 216, it will be observed that the whole of the inner part of the field is lost.

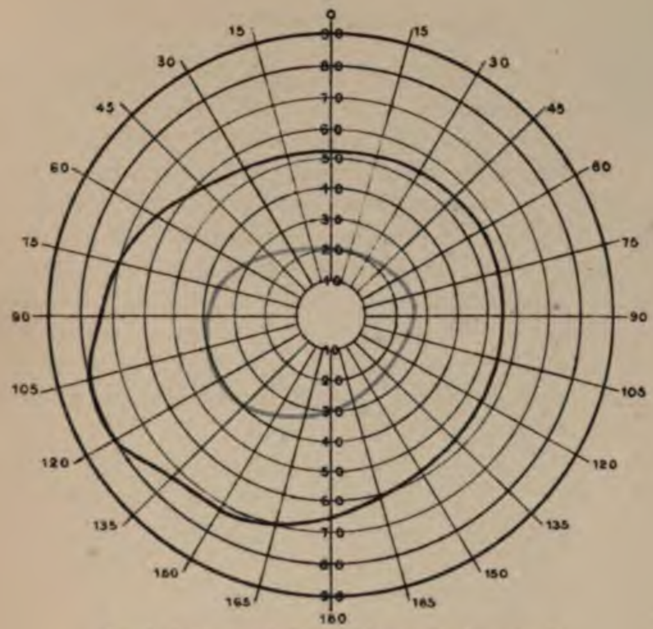

Fig. 1. Left visual field. Advanced optic atrophy.

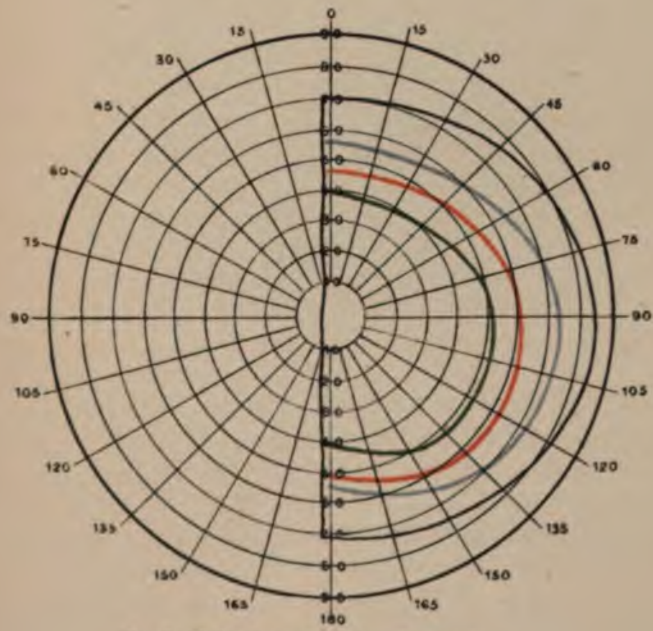

Fig. 2. Right visual field. Hemiopia.

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The exact situation of the intracranial lesion giving rise to hemiopia is still somewhat uncertain. Professor Charcot[1] considers the optic tract of the opposite side to be always involved; that is, the *left* optic tract is either diseased or pressed upon in *right* lateral hemiopia, and *vice versâ*. Dr. Ferrier[2] believes hemiopia may result from lesion affecting the occipital lobe and angular gyrus, apart from any implication of the optic tract or corpora geniculata. This conclusion is supported both experimentally and clinically.

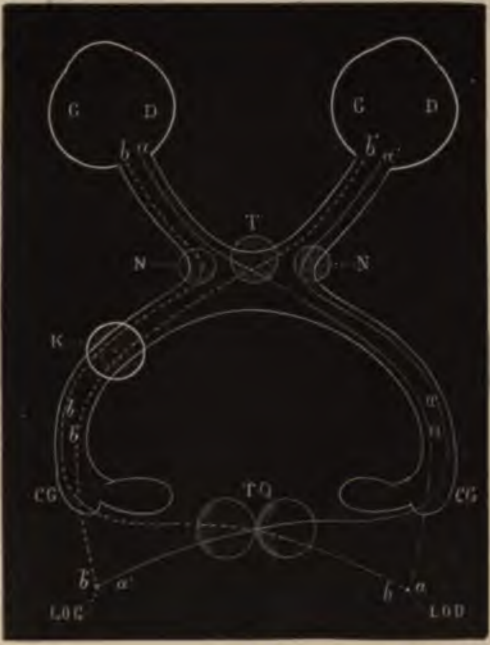

FIG. 51.

The above diagram (fig. 51) is that used by Charcot to explain the above-mentioned phenomena of lateral hemiopia, and crossed amblyopia.

The fibres of the optic nerves undergo a partial decussation at the chiasma T; *the left optic tract b b′* receiving fibres *b b* from the temporal half of the left retina, and others *b′ b′* from the nasal half of the right, i.e. from the right half of each visual field. In the same way the *right optic tract* receives impressions from the left half of each visual field.

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[1] *Localisation of Cerebral and Spinal Diseases.* New Sydenham Society, 1883.

[2] See *Brain*, vol. iii. p. 419.

The fibres corresponding to the optic tracts proceed to the corpora geniculata, C G, and it is supposed that the fibres which do not decussate in the commissure T do so beyond the corpora geniculata in T Q.

So that the centre L O G in the *left hemisphere* receives fibres from the right eye only, those from the right half of the visual field coming through the left tract, and those from the left half of the visual field coming through the right tract. In the same way the centre L O D in the right hemisphere receives fibres from the left eye only.

A lesion, therefore, at T would produce loss of the temporal half of each visual field. One at N on one side would produce loss of the nasal half of the field in the eye of the same side as the lesion. One at K in the left optic tract would cause loss of the right half of each visual field. One at T Q would cause loss of the nasal half of each field, a condition which is very rare. Finally, destruction of L O G or LOD would cause total blindness in the eye of the opposite side.[1]

In **hysterical hemianæsthesia** and in **cerebral hemianæsthesia** the unilateral defect is not confined to common sensibility; it involves also the special senses on the same side of the body as the cutaneous anæsthesia; these are the nerves of taste, hearing, smell, and sight. Attention has been particularly called to the condition of vision by the observations of M. Landolt in certain cases of Professor Charcot's at the Salpêtrière. He found—

(1) Normal ophthalmoscopic appearance of the fundus.

(2) Reduction of visual acuity to one half or more in the eye on the same side as the hemianæsthesia (crossed amblyopia).

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[1] But this schema of Charcot's, though explaining the binocular hemiopia in disease of the optic tract, and the crossed amblyopia in disease of the optic thalamus and internal capsule, does not explain the hemiopia met with in some cases of disease of the cerebral cortex (about the angular gyrus). To meet this Grasset has recently supposed that there is a second decussation of the nerve-fibres from the external half of each eye *beyond the internal capsule*. According to this each occipital lobe holds: *a*. The external nerve-fibres of the eye on the side of the lesion. *b*. The internal nerve-fibres of the opposite eye, like the optic tract of the same side.

(3) Concentric and general contraction of the visual field for white and for colours.

Night-blindness[1] has already been referred to as a symptom of pigmentary retinitis and other lesions of the fundus. Under certain circumstances, however, this affection is found to exist as a functional disorder. The characteristic symptom of functional night-blindness is that visual acuity, which is perfectly good in a bright solar or artificial light, becomes suddenly reduced when the sun gets below the horizon, or when the artificial light is reduced. The patient can see perfectly well during the day, but immediately after sunset, or when placed in a moderately dark room, the sight is so impaired that he has to grope about, and in some cases cannot find his way without the help of a guide. The visual field is not contracted. The fundus is normal in appearance. The pupil is sometimes half dilated, and there is generally some reduction in the range of accommodation.

The most common cause of night-blindness is the prolonged exposure of the retina to the action of strong brilliant light. It is common among sailors who have made long voyages under a tropical sun, and soldiers after prolonged marches; painters and masons who have been employed on white buildings are also sometimes affected. This trouble is more prone to occur in persons whose vitality is lowered from insufficient or improper food, excessive work, and other causes. It is often associated with scurvy. A paper by Dr. Forster ('Rec. d'Ophth.' Oct. 1882, p. 577) would seem to prove that the affection often makes its appearance in hot climates without exposure to bright light, especially in districts where ague is common.

Prognosis and treatment.—Night-blindness always improves under favourable conditions, although it sometimes evinces a tendency to recurrence. The first indication is to protect the eyes from all bright light. This may be done by keeping the patient in a feebly illuminated room, or by the use of very dark smoked glasses. The use of eserine drops (F. 31) is also advisable. A nourishing diet, and the use of iron, quinine, and other tonics, are valuable adjuncts. Cod-liver oil is also strongly recommended in this affection.

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[1] Until recently the term *hemeralopia* was used to indicate this symptom, and *nyctalopia* the opposite condition of 'night-sight,' or day-blindness. An article, however, by Dr. Greenhill (*Ophth. Hosp. Reports*, X. ii. p. 284) shows that the true meaning of the words according to their derivation and classical use is the exact reverse of this. Under these circumstances it would create confusion to retain either term.

Snow-blindness, which is sometimes experienced by persons who have travelled over extensive tracts of snow, presents the same functional derangements as the night-blindness just mentioned, but there is usually congestion of the conjunctiva with pain and photophobia. It is prevented by the use of deeply tinted glasses.

Micropsia signifies a condition of sight in which objects look too small. Its occurrence is indicative of the rods and cones being pressed asunder, so that images formed on the retina coincide with fewer retinal elements. It is sometimes found in syphilitic retinitis. '*Megalopsia*,' the apparent enlargement of objects, and micropsia are sometimes found in hysterical amblyopia. '*Metamorphopsia*' means the apparent distortion of objects.

Malingering.—Simulated amblyopia, or complete amaurosis of one or both eyes, is occasionally met with, but is less common in Great Britain than in countries where conscription is in force. It is found amongst those who wish to escape service; after injury, also, it is sometimes feigned with the hope of receiving compensation for damages. Amongst children the desire to avoid school and lessons is sometimes the chief motive. It also occurs amongst nervous and hysterical young women.

One eye, usually the right, is generally complained of as being defective, the other eye being declared normal. Under such circumstances the distant vision of each eye should be carefully tested, and the first statement as to the vision of the supposed amblyopic eye carefully noted. The deception may then be discovered in various ways.

1. *Graefe's method.*—Place a prism of 10° before the sound eye. If the patient be really using both eyes this will produce diplopia, and he will be observed to squint in order to correct this.

2. By means of Snellen's coloured test types suspended in front of a window. The alternate letters are red and bluish

green—the exact complement of the red. The patient is told to read these with the good eye. Thus, suppose he reads the word FRIEND,[1] of which FIN are green and RED are red; then, by placing a bluish-green plane glass in front of the good eye he will only see the letters FIN if the other eye be amblyopic—for the red letters cut off all rays of light except the red, while these are cut off by the green glass which transmits none but green rays, therefore no light can pass through both glasses. If the patient is malingering he will still see the whole word FRIEND with the observed eye.

3. Two very weak lenses may be alternately placed in front of the affected eye; if the patient believes that a succession of lenses is being tried, he will sometimes admit to a gradual improvement, often up to normal vision.

4. By paralysing the accommodation of the good eye, or by placing a strong concave lens (−20 D) in front of this, and then directing the patient to read, we know that he can only do so with the affected eye.

5. The stereoscope and other methods are also useful in the discovery of this kind of deception.

When amblyopia in both eyes is complained of, the mode of detection is more complicated, and requires greater tact on the part of the surgeon.

The refraction of each eye and the ophthalmoscopic appearance of the fundus being ascertained, the visual acuity of each eye should then be carefully recorded; then by placing feeble convex or concave glasses in front of either eye the patient will often betray himself by inconsistent replies. The visual field for white and for colours (p. 213) should then be tested. The nature of the answers to questions will here be also useful.

When complete amaurosis of one eye is asserted, it must be remembered that in such an eye the pupil would be dilated if the amaurosis had existed for a long time, and would not contract by the projection of a cone of light upon the cornea, supposing the opposite eye to be completely shaded from the light. In order to distinguish between dilatation of the pupil from blindness, and that from atropine, we must bear in mind that the dilatation from atropine is usually greater than from amaurosis; again, while in amaurosis a cone of light thrown upon the retina of the good eye would produce contraction of the sphincter pupillæ of the other, this would not be the case with dilatation from atropine.

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[1] These coloured types may be obtained from Mr. Pillischer, 88 New Bond Street, W.

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE VISUAL FIELD AND THE USE OF THE PERIMETER.

The visual field is the extent of a plane at right angles to the visual axis, over which the eye can recognise objects. Thus the eye being fixed on any point, 'the fixation point,' its image will fall on the yellow spot (direct vision); at the same time other objects will be less distinctly seen by the peripheral portions of the retina (indirect vision). The objects most distant from the fixation point will represent the limits of the visual field, and the latter may be considered as subtending a cone-shaped space whose apex is situated at the eye, and whose base becomes larger in proportion to its distance from the eye.

If the yellow spot were the only portion of the retina used for visual purposes we should suffer the greatest inconvenience from being able to see nothing but the object to which the visual axis was directed; all side objects, such as passers-by in the street, the ground on which we walk, and the thousands of other objects which we see indirectly with the peripheral portions of the retina, could then only be observed by constant turning of the eyes or head.

The limits of the visual field may be roughly ascertained in various ways.

1. Place the patient with his back to the window or gas-light; let him close one eye, and with the other look straight at your nose at a distance of about two feet; then hold up your two hands on opposite sides of your nose in the plane of the face, and ascertain to what extent they can be separated in the vertical, horizontal, and oblique directions before they disappear from his indirect vision.

2. *By the Campimètre of De Wecker.*—This instrument

(fig. 52) consists of a black-board, in the centre of which is a white cross, to which the patient is told to direct his visual axis. The head is kept in position by a chin-rest, and in front of the black-board there are radii of wire, upon which white balls can be made to slide from the circumference to the centre. While the patient looks steadily at the cross, with the eye to be examined, the white balls are passed inwards until the patient can just see them by indirect vision. They are thus found to describe an outline of the visual field.

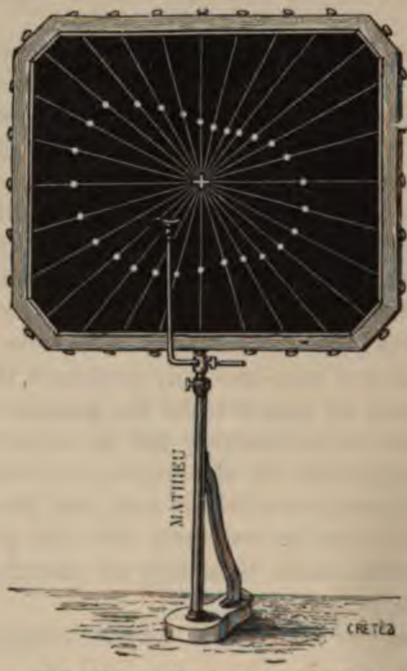

FIG. 52.—De Wecker's Campimètre.

The projection of the visual field on a plane surface has, however, the disadvantage that the peripheral parts are further removed from the eye than the central; and indeed, for points which are so far removed from the centre that lines drawn from them to the eye make angles of more than 45° with the visual axis, this method is almost impracticable. To obviate this the perimeter is used, which enables the field to be projected on a hemisphere of which the eye is the centre, so that every point of the field is at an equal distance.

3. **The Perimeter** consists of the arc or quadrant of a circle which in turning on a point describes a hemisphere, at the centre of which the eye of the patient is placed. The hemisphere thus described must be amply illuminated by diffused white light. At the pole of the hemisphere which is opposite to the patient's eye is a white spot, which the patient can fix by direct vision. The arc is divided into degrees, starting from 0°, which marks the white spot, up to 90°. These divisions are marked upon the arc. The test objects should consist of small discs of white and coloured paper, of 3 to 10 mm. diameter. In order to ascertain the limits of the visual field we proceed as follows:

The head being fixed, and the eye to be examined being placed at the centre of the hemisphere, the other eye is covered with a shade. The patient is then told to look steadily at the white spot above mentioned, while the surgeon, placing himself behind the perimeter, keeps a watch on the patient's eye, so as to be able to check its least deviation from the centre. Then, the arc of the perimeter being held in a certain plane, the vertical for example, the test object is advanced from the periphery towards the centre of the arc until it is just recognised by the eye under examination. This point corresponds to the limit of the visual field for that meridian.

The horizontal and oblique meridians are then similarly ascertained, and the data are transcribed on to a diagram or 'chart,' such as is shown in fig. 1, opposite p. 216, which represents the projection of a hemisphere upon a plane surface. In that diagram we have a series of concentric circles cut by numerous radii or diameters. The centre corresponds to 0° or the point of fixation, and the diameters to the different planes in which the measurements have been made. At the extremity of each radius a number shows the inclination of the corresponding meridian to the vertical. The radii themselves are also divided into equal parts, each corresponding to 10° of the divisions upon the arc of the perimeter.

Thus, supposing the right eye to be under examination for white, and we find the limits of indirect vision in the horizontal meridian to extend to 90° on the outer side, 70° on the inner; we proceed to mark these by dots or pricks upon the horizontal line of the chart at the points corresponding to 90° and 70° on the outer and inner parts respectively. The other meridians are similarly measured and marked off; and the dots are finally joined together by a continuous line, in the manner represented in fig. 1, on the opposite page.

In this way we find that the normal visual field is not circular, but that it is more extensive in the outer and lower than in the inner and upper portions. This is due partly to the fact that the retina extends slightly further forwards on the inner side (which of course corresponds to the outer side of the visual field), but chiefly to the circumstance that the outer part is less used than the inner, in consequence of the projection of the nose shutting off peripheral rays coming from the inner side.

Visual field for colours.—In testing the limits of the field for colours, Landolt[1] found that when colours of great intensity, such as those of the solar spectrum, are used they can be recognised quite up to the limits of the field for white. When, however, ordinary discs of coloured paper of about 2 cm. diameter are used in the manner above indicated for white, it is found that the peripheral portions of the retina are less easily excited by coloured than by white discs, and that each colour has its own limits, beyond which it ceases to be perceived by the retina. Thus, if we test the normal eye with the fundamental colours, blue, red, and green, in ordinary bright, well-diffused daylight, we find that on passing the test object from the periphery towards the centre, the blue is the first to be recognised, after that the red, and next the green. If the fields for each of these colours are respectively taken, and their outlines marked with coloured pencils, we obtain a chart similar to that represented in fig. 1 on the opposite page. Thus we find that the field for blue is almost as large as that for white, that it is larger than that for red, whilst the field for green is considerably smaller than that for red.

Of the other colours of the spectrum, the field for yellow is very similar to that for blue; the field for orange exists between the limits of the yellow and the red. Violet is a difficult colour

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[1] *Examination of the Eyes*, 1879. By Dr. E. Landolt.

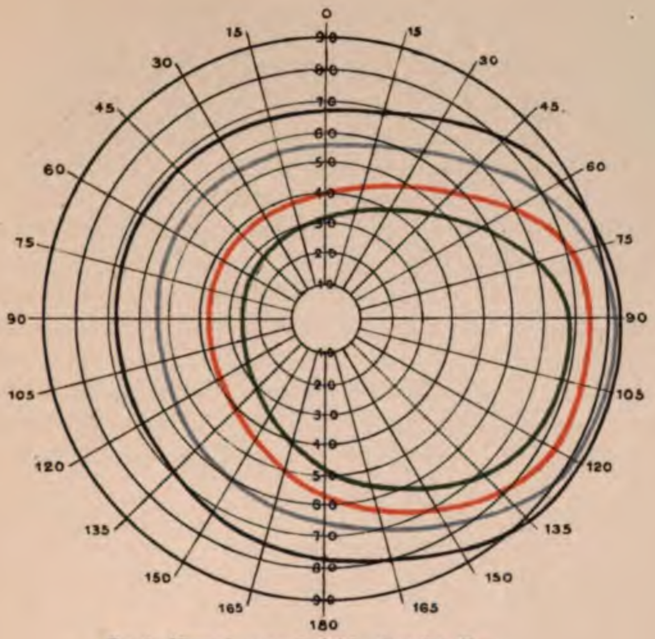

Fig. 1. Normal visual field of right Eye.

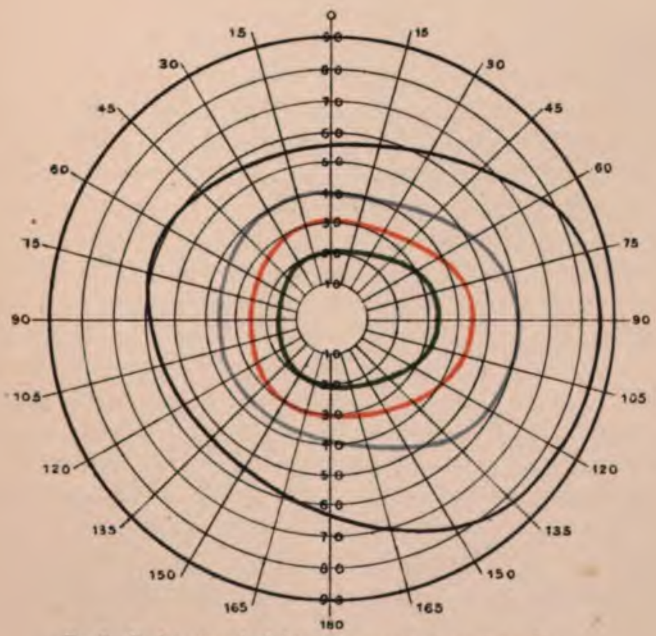

Fig. 2. Right visual field. Commencing optic atrophy.

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to test; it appears for a considerable distance as blue before its colour is really recognised as violet. The three fundamental colours, red, green, and blue, are really all that are required in practice.

The limits of the normal fields for colour are necessarily difficult to fix with accuracy, because, as we have seen, the sensibility of the retina varies with the intensity of the colour and the brightness of the illumination; and the acuteness of vision for colour is much less marked at the periphery than towards the centre of the field.

From a number of experiments on this subject, Landolt is of opinion that the following should represent the minimum extent of the normal visual field for colours:

	Blue	Red	Green
Upper . . .	50°	35°	30°
Outer . . .	80°	70°	55°
Lower . . .	55°	45°	35°
Inner . . .	50°	40°	30°

Other observers,[1] however, consider that the normal limits are considerably less than this. This difference of opinion is doubtless owing to different conditions in experimenting.

Scotomata.—Having ascertained the limits of the visual field, it is necessary to examine its area in order to ascertain if there exist any blind spots (*scotomata*). These may be complete or partial. When complete, the test object entirely disappears from view as it passes over the affected area. When partial, the object is only obscurely seen. This is effected by passing the test object from the periphery of the field towards its centre in the different meridians. The patient fixes the white spot on the perimeter as before, and is instructed to give a sign the moment that the object becomes obscure or entirely disappears, and when it again becomes clearly visible. These points are then recorded on the chart.

The blind spot.—There is one part of the field in which a scotoma is always present; this corresponds to the optic disc, where, as we have seen, the retina does not exist. In emmetropic eyes the position of this, the blind spot, is about 15° to the outer side, and 3° below the centre of the field. In hypermetropia this distance is greater, and may be as much as 19°;

whilst in myopic eyes it is less, and seldom exceeds 11°. The form of the blind spot is usually round, and its diameter subtends an angle of 5° to 6°.

Scotomata for colours are tested for in the same way as those for white.

Numerous forms of the perimeter have been introduced since this instrument was first used by Aubert. For a long time I was in the habit of using the instrument known as Förster's perimeter; this is, however, an exceedingly cumbersome apparatus, consisting of a broad semicircle of wood, which can be rotated about its centre; the test object is moved along this by a system of pulleys. There is, however, no advantage in using a semicircle, and most modern instruments have a quadrant only.

The self-registering machine recently invented by Mr. McHardy, and that still more recently introduced by Mr. Priestley Smith, are very excellent for the rapidity, accuracy, and facility with which they can be employed.

In Mr. McHardy's perimeter (fig. 53) there is a chin rest (E) and a biting fixation bar (M). The height of the rest and of the stem which supports the quadrant can be regulated to suit different patients.

The test-object—a disc of white and coloured paper—is fixed on a traveller, which is moved by an endless band worked by rotating the milled head (*j*). The hand of the surgeon can be concealed while rotating this by affixing the shield shown detached in the figure (*n*).

The chief novelty in the instrument is the mechanism by which the registering of the field is accomplished. The milled head (*j*), in addition to moving the traveller (*i*), rotates two toothed wheels, which cause two slips of metal to move in the same direction as the traveller, and at $\frac{1}{10}$ and $\frac{1}{5}$ of its speed respectively; from each of these there projects backwards a sharp pointer (*p*); these are so placed that when the traveller is at the fixation point (zero) their extremities lie exactly behind the fixation point.

The chart is placed in a frame supported on a hinged limb (*c*), in such a position that when the traveller is at zero the pointers correspond to the centre of the chart.

The quadrant can be rotated to, and fixed in, any position; and as the plates supporting the pointers move with it, their

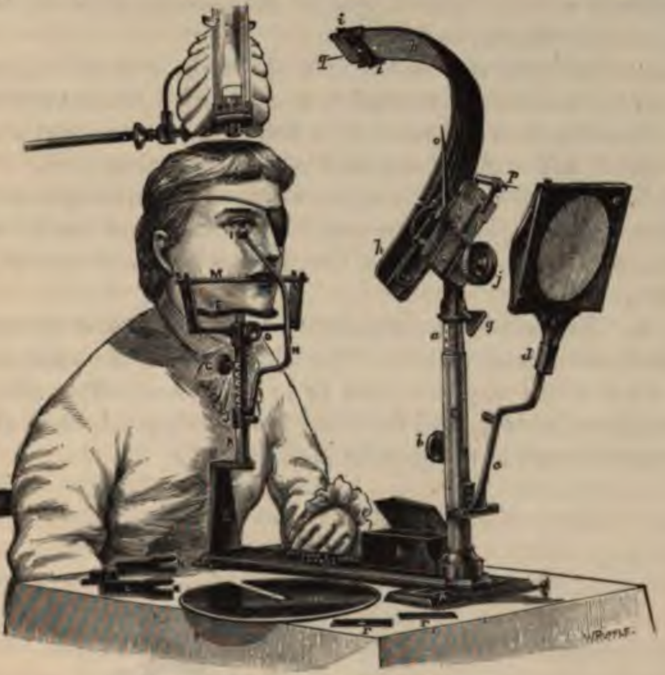

FIG. 53.—McHardy's Perimeter.[1]

line of movement always corresponds with the position of the quadrant.

In using the instrument the slow-travelling pointer is usually employed, and the other (which is intended for mapping out limited areas on an enlarged scale) is removed.

Mr. Priestley Smith's perimeter.[2]—The general arrangement of the instrument will be understood from fig. 54; the following points, only, need be particularly described. When the traveller has reached the limit of the visual field the chart is pressed against the pointer; the position of the test-object is thus recorded on the chart by a puncture.

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[1] This instrument (with charts) is sold by Messrs. Pickard & Curry, of 195 Great Portland Street, W. Its price is 8*l*. 10*s*.

[2] This instrument (with charts) is sold by Messrs. Pickard & Curry, of 195 Great Portland Street, W. Its price is 4*l*. 4*s*.

1. The patient rests his cheek against the wooden pillar, so that the eye is about an inch and a half above the knob, and vertically over it. The height of the instrument is regulated by movable blocks.

2. The quadrant, which is a flat strip of metal engraved upon its two sides, is rotated by a wooden hand-wheel attached to the axis; it is balanced by a weight upon the hand-wheel, so that it will stand in any position without being fixed.

3. The test-object is a square of paper gummed upon a light vulcanite wand which the operator holds in the left hand. With the right hand he rotates the hand-wheel, and pricks the chart.

4. The chart is placed upon the hinder surface of the hand-wheel, and rotates with it. There is a mark on the hand-wheel to show which way the chart is to be placed. This mark is brought to the top, and the chart is then slipped in from above downwards and in the upright position.

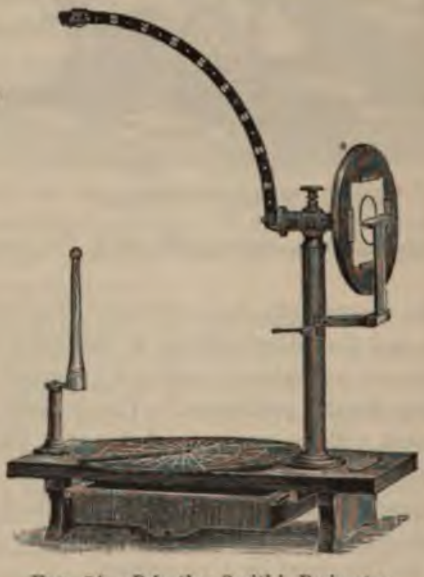

FIG. 54.—Priestley Smith's Perimeter.

5. Immediately behind the hand-wheel is fixed a horizontal scale, the divisions of which correspond with the circles on the

chart. As the quadrant rotates the chart rotates with it, and in whatever position the quadrant stands, the corresponding meridian of the chart stands against the scale. This arrangement enables the operator to prick off his observations with the greatest ease, and has the further advantage that the chart is constantly under inspection, and that any portion of the field can be immediately brought under examination at any time.

6. The charts are of two kinds, A and B. The A charts correspond to the entire field, and are divided by circles from 0° to 90°, the limits of the average normal field being shown by a dotted line. The B charts are for mapping the central part of the field on a larger scale, and are divided from 0° to 45°. The scale of the perimeter is graduated accordingly on its two sides; the A side is to be used with the A charts, and the B side with the B charts.

7. There are many cases in which it is better to sweep the field, or parts of it, in circles rather than in meridians, e.g. hemiopic and sector-like defects, in which the boundary line of the field runs in a meridional direction. In cases of this kind, the test-object may be placed in the clip which slides upon the quadrant, and carried round the field in successive circles. (*Vide* 'Ophthalmic Review,' November 1882.)

The importance of systematic observation by means of the perimeter is paramount. There is scarcely a lesion of the interior of the eye which is not accompanied by perimetric symptoms. Not only does it frequently assist in establishing a diagnosis which without its aid would have been doubtful, but a prognosis of the case can often be effected by this means which would otherwise have been impossible. Thus, *in atrophy of the optic nerve* there is always found to be a contraction of the visual field at least for colours, and although this affection is easily recognised in the advanced condition, yet there are many cases occurring in practice where, at the onset of the disease, the discs are not particularly pale, nor are the vessels contracted. Under such circumstances the discovery of contraction of the visual field for *colours* is of great assistance, both in the diagnosis and in the prognosis of the affection. Fig. 2, opposite p. 216, shows such a case, in which a man aged 40 was suffering from gradual failure of vision in both eyes. The vision in each eye was only $\frac{6}{36}$. The discs were not remarkably pale, nor was the visual field for white greatly contracted; but on carefully testing his field for colours it was found that the colour sense of the peripheral portions of the retina was considerably diminished. In advancing optic atrophy the contraction of the visual field is almost as constant a symptom as the failure of acuteness of vision.

In glaucoma the contraction of the visual field is quite characteristic of the disease. First the inner, and then the upper and lower portions of the field, begin to contract, and this gradually extends towards the centre of the field, the central and outer parts alone remaining unaffected. At a later period even the central vision is abolished, leaving only a portion of the outer part of the field intact. Finally even this is lost. The remarkable feature of this diminution is, that the contraction of the fields for colours appears to advance at the same rate as that for white, and so retain throughout a *concentric* arrangement similar to that existing in health. Fig. 1, on the opposite page, shows the usual condition of concentric limitation of the field. It was taken from a case of moderately advanced chronic glaucoma. There is sometimes a difficulty in distinguishing between chronic glaucoma and partial atrophy of the optic nerve. The cupping of the disc may be slight, and there may be pallor in both affections; but in the case of glaucoma the fields for colour are only limited in proportion to the contraction for white, whilst in atrophy the colour sense, more especially for green and red, may be almost abolished. Compare the charts of optic nerve atrophy and glaucoma opposite pp. 216 and 222.

In pigmentary retinitis there is also contraction of the field, which is alone almost characteristic of the disease. Here we find concentric limitation of the field, which involves all the peripheral portions, and leaves a small circular area around the centre in which the vision for colours is comparatively good. Fig. 2, on the opposite page, shows the chart of a man suffering from this affection.

In detachment of the retina, also, the use of the perimeter is often of service. Thus, having found by the ophthalmoscope that a portion of the retina is detached, we proceed to ascertain

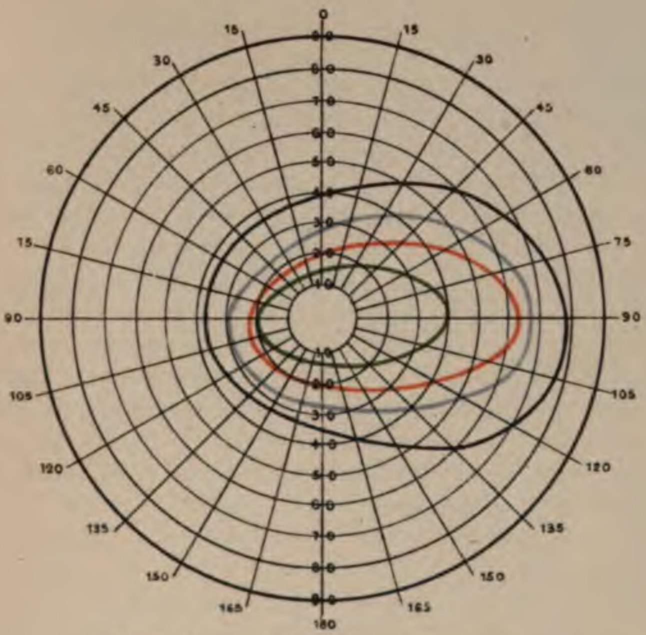

Fig. 1. Right visual field. Chronic Glaucoma.

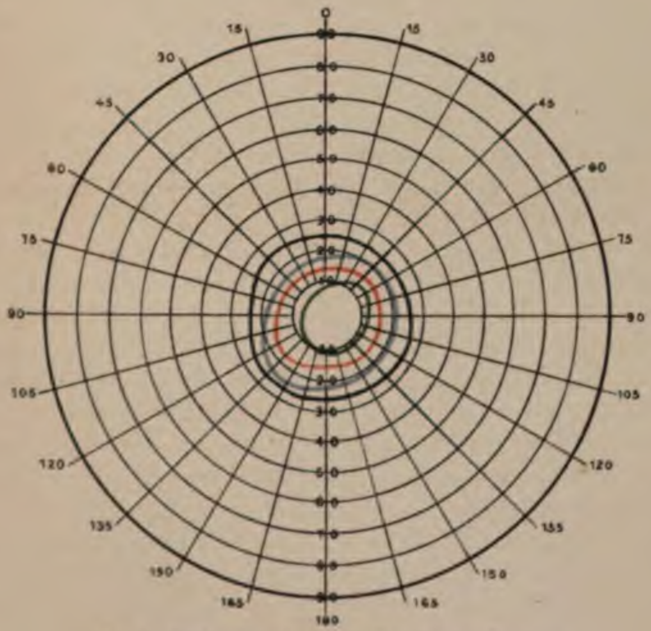

Fig 2. Right visual field. Pigmentary Retinitis.

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the limits of the field for white. Finding a limited portion in, say, the upper half of the field, destroyed, we know from this that the corresponding lower half of the retina is separated from the choroid. Now, by further testing the lower half of this field for colours we may still learn something as to prognosis. If we find the limits of the fields for colour extending quite up to the edge of the detachment, this may be regarded as a favourable indication; if, on the contrary, the colour sense is defective at some distance from the detachment, a further separation of the retina is to be feared.

In the various forms of hemiopia, again, it is advisable to keep a record of the limits of the persistent part of the field both for white and for colours. It is not at all uncommon, especially in homonymous hemiopia, to find the persistent half of the visual field in a state of perfect visual acuity, both for white and for colours. A chart of such a field is shown in fig. 2, opposite p. 206. Now, it is possible for the central cause of this affection, such as a small hæmorrhage in the corresponding hemisphere, or the pressure of a gumma upon the optic tract, to recede and so allow the hemiopia to disappear; and on the other hand, the central lesion may so increase as to extend to the opposite optic tract. By careful perimetric observation we may, to a great extent, ascertain the condition of things going on within.

In the various forms of *toxic amaurosis*—of which those due to tobacco and alcohol (*vide* p. 203) are the most common —the perimeter is a valuable instrument of diagnosis, for by it we are enabled to discern a central scotoma for colours, which is pathognomonic of these affections.

Other forms of scotoma are sometimes found. That known as the *ring scotoma* forms a band round the point of fixation, while the adjacent portion of the field is unaffected, and may easily be overlooked unless the field be very carefully tested. What the significance of this and other rare forms of scotoma is we are not at present in a position to state; but there can be no doubt that the perimeter will in the future be of considerable help in the differential diagnosis of many of the cases of amblyopia without ophthalmoscopic signs, the pathology of which is at present obscure.

The field of fixation is a term used to express the amount of angular deviation from a line at right angles to the plane of the face which can be given to the eye by its muscles. This can also be measured by means of the perimeter. The patient is placed in the same position as for testing the visual field. Instead of employing discs as test-objects, we substitute a letter of the alphabet, which is of such a size that its form can only be recognised when its image falls on the yellow spot. The slide of the perimeter, with the letter attached, is now passed from the centre towards the periphery of the arc, and the patient is told to follow it with his eye, and to give a sign as soon as he can no longer distinguish its form. The angle at which the form of the letter is lost is then marked upon a chart similar to those used for the visual field. The process is repeated for the remainder of the horizontal, the vertical, and the intermediate meridians. The points thus obtained are then connected by a continuous line, which maps out the limits of the field of fixation for that eye.

From a large number of experiments made in this way upon healthy eyes, Landolt has found that the average limitations of the normal field of fixation are as follow:

Outwards	45°	Inwards	45°
Outwards and downwards	47°	Inwards and upwards	45°
Downwards	50°	Upwards	43°
Downwards and inwards	38°	Upwards and outwards	47°

It is evident that this method of testing the movements of the eye produced by the action of the ocular muscles would be of great help in recording any deficiency in the action of these muscles. Thus, supposing the external rectus to be paralysed, we should find that the limits of the field of fixation would not extend to 45°, but would be nearer to zero in proportion to the completeness of the paralysis. Similarly for all the ocular muscles.

In the chapter on Strabismus it will be found that the use of the perimeter in tracing the field of fixation is not only useful in this way, but also in distinguishing the paralytic from other forms of squint.

The field of fixation can also be ascertained *objectively.*

To effect this a lighted taper is passed along the arc of the perimeter instead of the letter just mentioned. The positions of the patient and the observer are the same as before. The patient is then told to direct the eye as far as possible in the direction of the periphery of the arc. Having done this, the observer passes the light along the arc until, by keeping his own eye just behind it, he is able to see its image in the centre of the patient's cornea. Since the reflected pencil of rays only coincides with the incident rays when it lies on the principal axis of the cornea, this test gives the position of the latter, and although this does not exactly coincide with the *visual* axis, the difference is unimportant. He then reads upon the arc

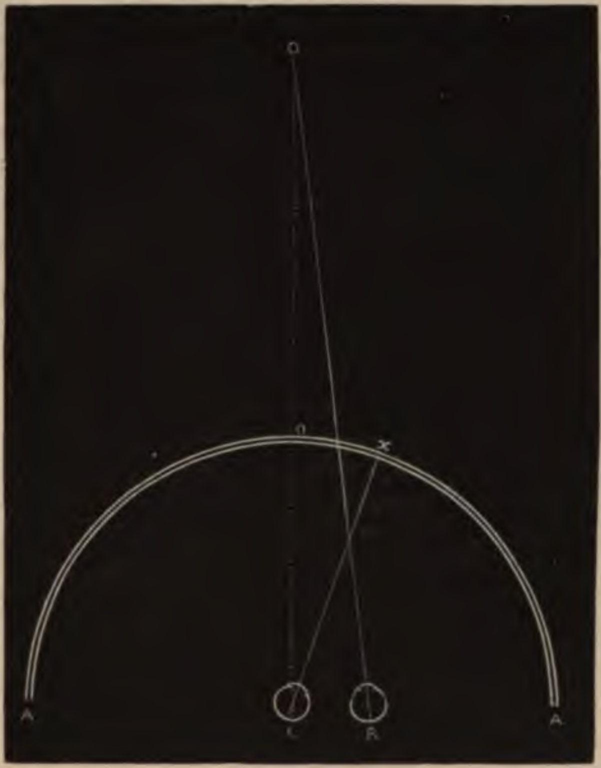

FIG. 55.

(A A, fig. 55) the position (x) of the taper, and then proceeds to register the other meridians in a similar manner (Javal).

The angle 'alpha,' or the angle formed by the intersection of the visual line and the optic axis, can also be determined by the perimeter. The patient must be made to fix the lighted taper placed at zero; the observer then moves his eye along the arc until the reflection of the flame is seen in the cornea; he then reads the angle between this point and the flame, which is double that of the angle alpha. (This experiment is accurate only when the principal axis of the cornea coincides with that of the whole eye.)

A recent writer (Wecker and Landolt, p. 110) has employed the term *angle 'alpha'* to express the angle formed by the visual line and the axis of the cornea; it has, however, been thought better to retain the original sense of the term.

CHAPTER X.

ON COLOUR-VISION AND ITS DEFECTS.

BY W. ADAMS FROST, F.R.C.S.

Normal colour-vision.—Light is transmitted by means of transverse waves of ether; the waves, however, in white or colourless light are not of one uniform type, but vary in height and rapidity of vibration. The waves of greatest height and slowest vibration are less easily refracted than the lesser waves with more rapid vibration; hence, when a beam of solar light passes through a prism, it undergoes *dispersion*, or a separation into waves of different rates of vibration. Such of these waves as are capable of exciting the retina give rise to the sensation of *colour*, and the series of colours caused by the decomposition of light is called a spectrum. The largest waves which are capable of exciting the retina give rise to the sensation of red, the smallest to that of violet; between these extremes are waves of gradually decreasing size and increasing rates of vibration from the red to the violet, and these give rise to various colours.

The colours of the spectrum, and their order, are as follows: (*Heat rays*), RED, Orange, Yellow, GREEN, Prussian Blue, Indigo, VIOLET (*chemical rays*).

These are the only ether waves capable of exciting the retina; but at each end of the visible spectrum there are invisible waves. Those beyond the red are of still greater height, and are called heat rays; and beyond the violet are smaller waves, which are called chemical rays. The difference, however, is of degree, and not of kind, for all the rays possess heat and chemical action, and the visible portion of the spectrum owes its visibility, not to any difference in its physical character, but to the construction of our visual apparatus.

Light is reflected from objects in various ways. A surface reflecting light perfectly—a perfect mirror—would be colourless and invisible. A surface which reflects all the waves in the same proportion as they exist in white light, but reflects the waves irregularly, appears *white*. A surface reflecting no light, but quenching or absorbing all, would be invisible; if it reflected only sufficient light to render it visible, it would appear *black*; so that a black surface is visible only in consequence of the imperfection of its blackness. A coloured surface quenches some waves of colourless light, and reflects others; it is from the latter that we judge of the *colour* of the surface.

For the sake of clearness, the following terms in relation to colours should always be used in the same sense. Differences in *hue* or *tone* are those which exist between the different colours of the spectrum, as red, yellow, blue, &c. *Fullness* or *saturation* depends on the amount of coloured light reflected; the more white light is reflected with a colour the less the degree of saturation. *Brightness* depends on the total amount of light reflected. A colour which is much diluted with white we speak of as *pale* or *light*. The term *full* or *deep* should mean that a large quantity of the coloured light is reflected, and very little white; while *dark* means that a comparatively small quantity of coloured light is reflected, but none of any other kind—in other words, it is mixed with *black*.

Additional proof that white light is composite is afforded by the fact that the colours of the spectrum can be re-combined, so as to form white, by condensing them by means of a lens, and that if the colours be painted on a disc (Maxwell's disc) in the same proportions as they exist in the spectrum, and the disc be rotated rapidly, a grey is produced, which approaches white in proportion to the purity of the pigments used and the accuracy with which the relative quantity of each colour has been measured.

In order to produce white, however, it is not necessary to employ all the colours of the spectrum; a mixture of red, green, and violet will suffice. These colours are the only ones that cannot be produced by a mixture of others, hence they are called *fundamental* or *primary*. Any other colour of the spectrum (or a colour indistinguishable from it by the eye) can be produced by a combination of the primary colours on either side of it. In speaking thus of the mixture of colours it must be understood that coloured *light* is meant; the effect of mixing *pigments* is different, because the pigments are impure; thus a mixture of blue and yellow light produces white, but if blue and yellow pigments be mixed, green is produced; this is because each of the pigments reflects some green light in addition to its own colour, so that by their union a green, more or less mixed with white, is produced.

Since white can be made by mixing the three primary colours, it follows that to each one of these there corresponds a *complementary colour* (i.e. a colour whose addition is required to make white), which is formed by a combination of the other two.

Thus the complement of *red* is green + violet = *bluish-green*
" " *green* is red + violet = *purple*
" " *violet* is red + green = *yellowish-green.*

In the same way, to each colour in the spectrum there is another, which, added to it, produces white, and which is therefore said to be complementary to it. The relative positions of a colour and its complement are the same throughout the spectrum. Thus, if a colour be taken which lies to the right of red, e.g. orange, its complement will lie to the right of bluish green, viz. blue, and so throughout the spectrum.

But here we must guard against an error. Each colour in the spectrum has a definite wave-length, and rapidity of vibration peculiar to itself; and, though the visual sensation produced by the mixture of two of the so-called fundamental colours is indistinguishable from that produced by the spectral colour that lies between them, this resemblance is probably only due to the imperfection of our colour-sense. Viewed in this light, the separation of the colours of the spectrum into fundamental and non-fundamental has a great value in relation to our perception of colours, but none in relation to their physical properties; in other words, its value is physiological rather than physical.

Purple seems to occupy an anomalous position in the scale of colours, for it is formed by the union of red and violet; yet these do not lie on either side of it, but at opposite ends of the spectrum. We have seen that beyond either end of the visible spectrum there are waves the rates of whose vibrations form a continuous series with those of the visible spectrum; so that from the large, slowly vibrating, ultra-red waves the rate of vibration gradually increases through all the spectral colours to the invisible ultra-violet rays; how far they extend in either direction we have no means of knowing, but there is no ground for supposing that they stop short at the point where we cease to be able to follow them. If we assume that beyond the violet these waves extend *ad infinitum*, their rate of vibration increasing at the same rate as in the visible spectrum, it is evident that at some distance beyond the violet they would form a series of waves which would stand in the same relation to the colours of the visible spectrum as a series of musical notes to their octaves. On this hypothesis purple would take its proper place between the violet of the visible spectrum and the octave of the visible red, and the light of the sun would consist of an infinite series of waves, of which only a single octave would be capable of exciting any visual sensation.

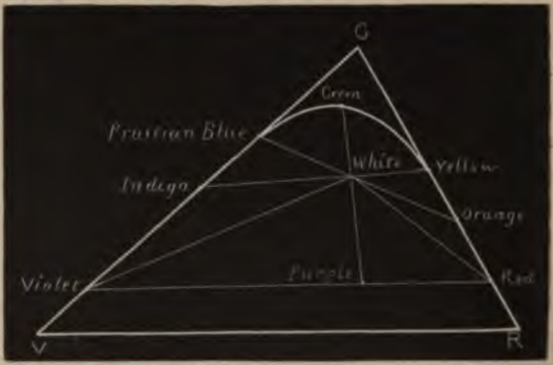

FIG. 56.—(From Hermann: modified.)

The relation of the colour sensations to each other and to white may be conveniently represented by a circle formed by all the colours of the spectrum, the red and violet being united by various shades of purple, and white being placed in the middle. Each colour and its complement would then lie at opposite extremities of the same diameter, while white, which is formed by their union, would lie between them. Such a diagram, however, would give no indication of the proportion of each colour necessary; this can be done by altering the circle to a triangle, and placing the fundamental colours at the angles; a colour formed by the combination of any two will then be found on the line between them (fig. 56). We shall presently see that the purest primary colours do not give rise to the purest possible sensation of those colours, so that the sensations which we call red, green, and violet are indicated by a position a little removed from the angles. The position of the various colours, and of white, is so chosen that the latter always lies on the line connecting the complementary colours, and proportionately nearer to that one of which it contains most; and in the same way, any compound colour lies on the line between its components, and proportionately nearer to the one of which it contains most.

There is reason to believe that our sense of colour is very defective. In the first place, we know that there are waves on each side of the visible spectrum, which, although they possess no other difference, as far as we can ascertain, from those of the visible spectrum, yet excite no visual sensation. In the second place, the same visual impression is caused by colours that have no other claim to be considered as identical. Thus, a mixture of red and bluish-green, and one of yellowish-green and violet, alike produce the sensation of white; yet a surface illuminated by the first would in a photograph come out black, while the second, under the same conditions, would appear very bright; by means of a prism, too, the mixtures could be resolved into their component colours. Helmholtz has compared our colour and musical senses, and shown how much more highly developed the latter is; for a good musical ear can not only assign to every note heard singly its true value, but can resolve a chord into the notes of which it is compounded, and even in the combined effect of an orchestra can recognise each component sound.

We shall presently see that the visual sensations produced by the fundamental spectral colours, although the purest ever experienced, are under the ordinary conditions of vision less pure than certain *subjective* sensations of these same colours.

We must first glance at the physiological relation that exists between complementary colour-sensations. If any bright colour be looked at steadily for about half a minute, and the eye be then directed to some white or grey surface, an *after-image* is seen, whose colour is complementary to that of the surface originally looked at. If the complement to one of the spectral colours is looked at in this manner, the hue in the after-image is brighter than the corresponding hue in the spectrum, and gives rise to a purer sensation of that colour than can be obtained in any other way.

To construct a theory of the mode in which colours are perceived, which should explain the relation of the fundamental to the other colours, the physiological relation of the complementary colours, and the mistakes made by those who are colour-blind, was a problem which occupied physicists and physiologists during the first half of this century. In 1800, however, the mighty intellect of Thomas Young had already formulated such a theory; but as it was about half a century in advance of the accepted physiology of his day, it lay dormant and forgotten, until revived and slightly modified by Helmholtz, when it was found not only to explain nearly all the phenomena associated with our perception of colours, but to be in strict accordance with facts which have been discovered and theories which have been accepted since it was first constructed.

Young's theory was, that in the eye there existed three sets of fibres, each of which was excited by one of the fundamental colours and by the non-fundamental colours near it in the spectrum, so that each fundamental colour excited only one set of fibres, but a non-fundamental colour excited the fibres corresponding to the fundamental colours on each side of it. Thus red and green would each excite one set of fibres only, while yellow, which lies between them in the spectrum, would excite both the red and green fibres; this explains why the same visual sensation is produced by a pure spectral yellow, and a yellow is produced by mixing red and green. This theory, however, although capable of accounting for most of the facts connected with colour-vision, leaves a few unexplained—for instance, the fact of the subjective sensation of the after-image of bluish-green (the complement of red) being more intense than that caused by the primary sensation of the purest red in nature, namely, that of the spectrum; it fails to explain, also, why those who are blind to red confuse certain shades of red and green, for according to it pure red would excite no visual sensation at all. To meet these difficulties Helmholtz modified the theory somewhat.

Young-Helmholtz theory.—This modified theory is as follows: That there exist, as assumed by Young, three sets of fibres corresponding to the three fundamental colours, but that each of these colours, in addition to exciting its own special fibres, excites also, but in a much less degree, the other two. The effect of the various colours of the spectrum in different sets of fibres can be conveniently shown by the accompanying diagram (fig. 57). The curves 1, 2, and 3 represent respectively the fibres corresponding to red, green, and violet; the height of the curve at any point is in proportion to the degree in which it is stimulated by the colour indicated below by a letter. The sensation of white is produced by the maximum stimulation of all three.

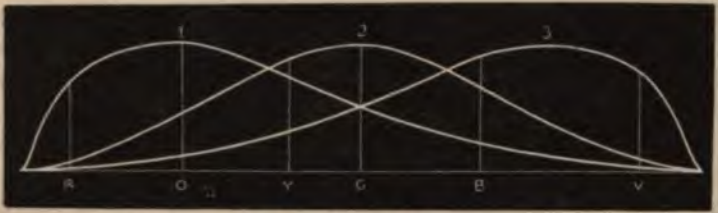

FIG. 57.—(From Holmgren.)

According to this view, red not only stimulates strongly the red fibres, but also to a slight extent those for green and violet. If, then, we could eliminate the action of the two latter fibres, we should get a purer sensation of red; this can be done by gazing at a colour formed by the union of green and violet, viz. bluish-green; the fibres corresponding to green and violet then become fatigued, and the complementary red of the after-image consequently appears more vivid than the purest red with the eye in its natural condition. The Young-Helmholtz theory is now very generally accepted; there are, however, several rival theories, most of which are merely modifications of it, and need not detain us; but what may be termed the photo-chemical theory of Hering must be briefly noticed.

Hering's theory.—It was discovered a few years ago that there existed in the retina a substance which received the name of *visual purple*, upon which light under certain conditions acted chemically, producing a kind of photograph of external objects. Hering assumed that there are three substances, each of which is acted on chemically by two colours but in opposite ways, the one colour causing disintegration of the substance, the other building up; and he accordingly designated each as an *assimilation* or a *dissimilation* colour; these substances he considers as corresponding to the following pairs: (1) Red and green, of which red is the dissimilation and green the assimilation colour; (2) Blue and yellow—of these he is uncertain which to consider as dissimilation and which assimilation; (3) White and black, of which white is the dissimilation colour.

According to this view, white and black are considered as specific colour-sensations, and not as expressing the combined effect of all colours or the absence of light.

The foundation for Hering's theory is the assumption that the visual purple plays an essential part in vision, but this is by no means proved. That prolonged exposure to light of a delicate membrane like the retina, should produce some changes, is not surprising; but if such changes were essential to vision they would surely be most marked where vision was most acute, viz. at the yellow spot, but here the visual purple is absent. This theory, however, does explain a fact that the Young-Helmholtz theory does not account for, viz. that a complementary after-image is seen when the eyes are closed.

The retinal elements which are essential to colour-vision are probably the cones, for they are most abundant at the yellow spot where colour-vision is most acute, and more sparsely scattered at the periphery where colour-vision is very defective, and in animals whose habits are nocturnal the cones are absent. (Schultze.)

The periphery of the visual field is blind to all colours, the field for green being the smallest. It has, however, been said (Landolt) that if colours of great intensity be employed they can be recognised quite up to the periphery of the field. Since the colour of objects depends on the light reflected from them, it will necessarily vary with the incident light; if the amount of light reflected is sufficiently bright to stimulate all the three sets of fibres to their maximum extent, the sensation of white is produced whatever may be the colour of the reflecting surface by a feebler illumination. A colour which has the greatest intrinsic brightness, i.e. reflects the most light, most easily passes into white; in this respect yellow takes the lead. For the same reason colours of a low degree of saturation, i.e. containing much white light, differ less from each other in appearance than more saturated colours; this fact has an important practical bearing in testing the colour-vision.

Congenital defects of colour-vision.—It has long been known that persons are occasionally met with who, although possessing normal sight in all other respects, fail to see any difference between colours which to other people are totally distinct; they are therefore said to be *colour-blind.* The earliest published case of colour-blindness is that of a shoemaker in Cumberland named Harris ('Phil. Trans. of Royal Soc. 1777'). In 1794 Dalton discovered his own defect, and mentioned other cases. But it is only within the present decade that any attempt has been made to ascertain the frequency of colour-blindness; and the result of the examination of large numbers of persons, in this country, on the Continent, and in America, has been to establish the fact that, although it is a rare defect among females, the proportion of colour-blind persons among males whose sight is otherwise normal is not less than 4 per cent.

That the percentage should be so high seems at first sight almost incredible, but the defect is one that can not only easily be concealed by the subject of it, but one of which he may be himself entirely unconscious. In early life we learn to associate the names of certain colours with the names of common objects; thus we learn very early that grass is green, the clear sky blue, and that a soldier wears a red coat; a child who has normal colour-sense soon learns to recognise similar qualities in other objects and to call them by the same name, whilst one whose colour-vision is defective learns by heart the colours of common objects, without recognising the true distinctions. As he grows older he is puzzled to find other objects designated by the same epithet; if he attempts to name the colour of unfamiliar objects he makes mistakes, for which he is laughed at, and he probably thinks no more about the matter, but does not again commit himself to giving a name to a colour. Except in certain employments, it is very seldom that one is called upon to name a colour or to match two coloured objects; and it must, moreover, be borne in mind that the colour-blind do not confuse all colours, but only a few, and not all shades of those; so that a man may easily reach adult life without suspecting his defect himself, and still more easily without exciting any suspicion of it among his friends. The case of a woman is somewhat different. Except in the lowest grades of society, it would hardly be possible for a woman who was colour-blind long to conceal her defect; but among women the defect is, as we shall see later on, extremely rare.

Throughout this chapter it must be understood that we are speaking of a congenital, not of an acquired defect; in many morbid conditions the loss or impairment of colour-sense is an important symptom, and in some toxic forms of amaurosis—notably those due to tobacco and alcohol—the loss of colour-vision over a limited area of the visual field is a characteristic symptom. These acquired defects will, however, be more appropriately considered under the diseases in the course of which they occur.

Defective colour-vision may present several varieties and degrees, and these have been variously classified. The mistakes made by the colour-blind can, however, be most conveniently explained by means of the Young-Helmholtz theory, and this therefore serves as the best basis for a classification. As the essence of this theory is the existence of separate nerve-fibres for each of the three fundamental colours, so defective colour-vision is explained by the absence, or impaired function, of one or more of these sets of fibres. Thus we may have—

A. **Total colour-blindness** (achromatopsia), in which there would be only one set of fibres capable of excitation, and therefore all differences of colour would only make themselves known according to the degree of excitation they caused, and would be perceived only as various degrees of brightness. Total colour-blindness is, however, extremely rare, and need not be further considered here.

B. **Complete blindness for one of the fundamental colours** (partial achromatopsia). Thus we may have—

i. Complete red-blindness
ii. „ green-blindness
iii. „ violet-blindness (or blue, according to Maxwell).

C. Incomplete blindness for one of the fundamental colours.

D. Incomplete blindness for all three.

The two latter may be conveniently classed together as feeble chromatic sense.

Among pronounced cases of colour-blindness—Group B.—red-blindness is the most common, while violet-blindness is very rare.

The red- and the green-blind possess, as we shall presently see, many points of resemblance, and are equally important in cases where the competence of the subject to distinguish signals is in question. For these reasons those coming under B. i. and B. ii. are sometimes classed together as 'red-green-blind.'

We have seen that, according to the Young-Helmholtz theory, each fundamental colour, in addition to exciting the special fibres corresponding to it, excites also, but in a less degree, the other fibres; it is evident, therefore, that the absence of one set of fibres must alter the perception not only of the fundamental colour which most powerfully excites it, but also of those which excite it in a less degree. This will be made clearer by a reference to the annexed diagram (fig. 58), which is a reproduction of fig. 57 with the curve 1 omitted, and therefore represents the colour-vision of the red-blind. The sensation of white is now produced by the excitation of *two* instead of *three* sets of fibres. *Red* will excite the fibres for green, and very slightly indeed those for violet; therefore, the sensation of green will be produced. Since the amount of excitation of each set of fibres is comparatively slight, the colour will appear to be lacking in brightness; but as the stimulation is confined almost entirely to the one set of fibres, there will be little appearance of admixture with white: therefore the red will appear as a saturated green of low intensity.

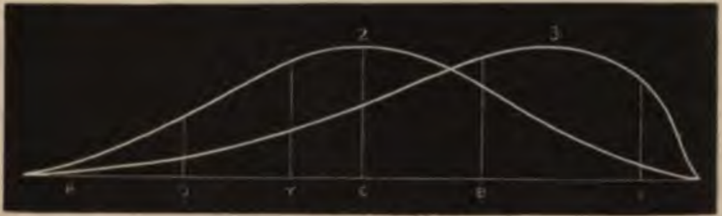

FIG. 58.—(Holmgren.)

Red, orange, yellow, and green will obviously produce very similar sensations, but the green will be the most intense—i.e. the brightest, and at the same time the least saturated—that is, will contain the greatest amount of white. A red-blind person, therefore, would distinguish red and green only by their difference in brightness; if the two appeared of the same intensity to the normal eye, the green would appear the brightest to the red-blind; and if given several shades of red and green, and told to find two—one of each colour—which appeared to him alike, he would match a dark saturated red with a bright green. It is evident, however, that yellow and blue would give rise to totally different sensations, and would therefore not be confounded by him.

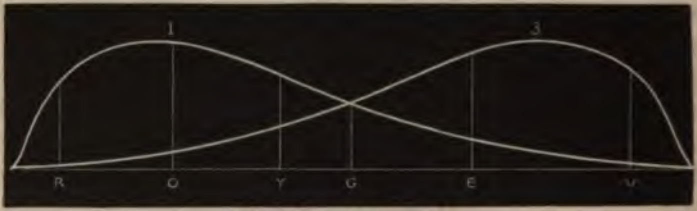

FIG. 59.—(Holmgren.)

In the same way, for the green-blind curve 2 is omitted (fig. 59).

Red will be a saturated colour of low intensity; yellow will be slightly more intense, and whiter.

Green is composed of nearly equal parts of the two fundamental sensations which in the green-blind produce white by their combination, but being of low intensity is equivalent to grey. The impression produced by a yellowish-green, however (between yellow and green), would not be easily distinguished from a yellowish-red (scarlet) between red and orange, except that the latter would appear brighter. Hence the green-blind will not unfrequently match a scarlet with a yellowish-green, which to the normal sight is much brighter.

Violet-blindness is extremely rare, and not of so much practical interest as the preceding varieties, as it produces no confusion between red and green, which are the colours used in signalling.

Methods of testing colour-vision.—The practical importance of being able with certainty to detect defective colour-vision lies in the fact that the lives of many may be sacrificed by one man mistaking a red for a green signal. Hence it would seem at first sight that the best test would be to show the examinee red and green signals in succession, and ask him to name the colour. Such a test would, however, be inefficient for several reasons. We have seen that the red- and green-blind do not confound red and green, but only certain shades of these colours; given a red and green, which to the normal eye appear of equal brightness, the red will appear the brighter to the green-blind, and the green to the red-blind. Seeing the two lights in quick succession, a man who is red- or green-blind may recognise the difference between them, and name them correctly; possibly he is unaware of his defect, and believes that he recognises the true difference between them. But this is not sufficient; he may in clear weather, and at a known distance, recognise a signal correctly; but if that which is to him the brighter light is obscured by steam or mist, how is he then, with no standard of comparison, to recognise it? At sea, too, a fresh difficulty is interposed by the fact that the distance of the light is unknown. The use of coloured lanterns, or a lamp with coloured glasses and diaphragms, so that signal lamps at different distances can be represented, is interesting as a confirmation of other tests, but is utterly unreliable as a first test.

A good test should be quite independent of the *names* of the colours—many uneducated persons are wonderfully ignorant of colour-nomenclature, and yet have perfect colour-vision —and it should be sufficiently rapid to enable a large number of persons to be examined in a short space of time. It is, of course, essential that it should be a real test, i.e. that it should allow no one with defective colour-vision to pass, or condemn any with normal colour-sense.

Holmgren's wools constitute a test which fulfils these requirements better than any other. This method consists in making the observer pick out from a heap of wools those which seem to him to be the same colour as one given to him. Skeins of wool have been chosen as the test objects, for the following reasons amongst others. The colours are purer, and the surface reflects less white light than pieces of paper, glass, or other stiff material. They can be obtained in any variety of colour, and are uniformly coloured throughout.

The tests are three in number: the first will detect all those who have any defect of colour-vision, the others will determine the nature of the defect.

The wools must be placed on a flat surface, on a white cloth, in good daylight.

Test I.—In the first test a skein is taken as the colour, which is a pure green rather freely mixed with white; it is represented very accurately in the colour-plate on the opposite page.[1]

The heap of wools should consist of: (1) A variety of shades of green of the same character as the test colour; other greens also may be added, such as blue-green, but they make the test longer, and do not add to its efficiency. (2) Various shades of the confusion colours (1–5, in the opposite plate), consisting of greys, drabs, yellows, rose, and salmon colours, all freely diluted with white.

The test colour is shown to the examinee, and he is told to look at the heap and to pick out from it those skeins which appear to him to be the same colour as it, it being explained that they may be of lighter or darker shades.

With people of low intelligence, and with children, it is a good plan for the examiner to go through the test himself to show how simple a matter it is; if the number of wools be sufficient, and they are properly mixed afterwards, this gives no unfair assistance to those whose colour-vision is defective.

The directions may be given to a large number—as many as can conveniently see—at the same time, and then each one is told to step forward in turn and go through the test. Those with normal colour-sense, as a rule, pick out the correct wools quickly and without hesitation; those who have any defect choose their wools in a slow, hesitating manner, and with them

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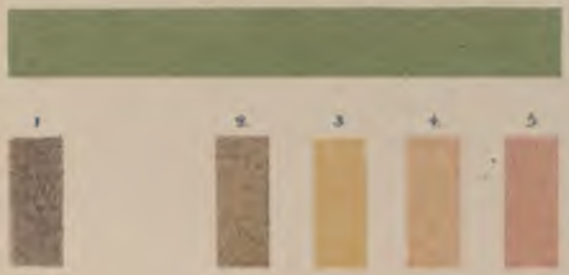
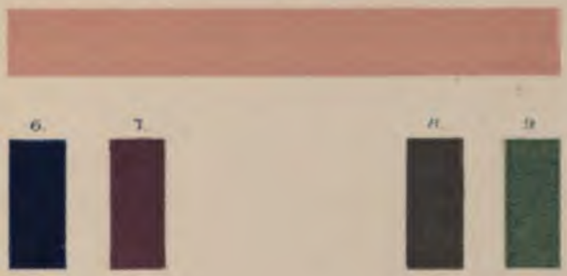
[1] Great pains have been taken by Messrs. Lebon and Co. to reproduce the colours of the wools in the plate, but it is difficult or impossible to do so accurately. As, however, several shades of each colour have to be used, the errors are of little consequence. The plate is only intended to represent the wools, and must on no account be itself used as a test, as some of the compound colours are composed differently to the dyes used for the wools.

TESTS for COLOUR-BLINDNESS.
(After Holmgren.)

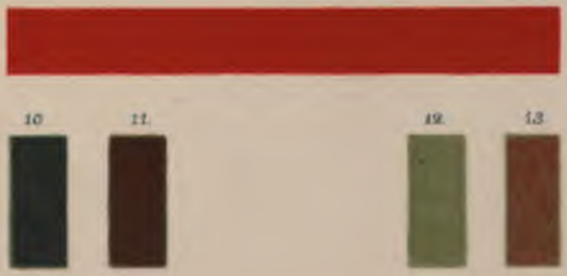
I.



II a.



II b.



Lebon & Co.

select one or more of the confusion colours, and miss some of the greens. Any who choose a confusion colour, or show a genuine doubt as to whether they should choose one—even though they reject it—should be subjected to the second test. Those who pick out all the correct wools and no confusion colours may be considered to possess normal colour-sense. After a little experience one learns to recognise those who suspect their own deficiency, by their general behaviour; they generally hang back, and watch the performance of others with great care, when their turn comes they are most laboriously careful, taking up each skein and looking at it minutely. The inexperienced examiner may, however, if he trusts to general behaviour, occasionally mistake nervousness or stupidity for defective colour-sense; the difficulties arising from the former can always be overcome by tact and patience.

The object of Test I. is to separate those whose colour-vision is normal from those in whom it is defective; the nature of the defect is determined by the following test.

Test II.—A rather pale but bright shade of purple (rose) is taken as the test (II. (a) represents it fairly well, but is a little too dull). The heap of wools consists of (1) various shades of purple, (2) various shades of the *confusion colours* (6–9)—blues, violets, greys, and greens.

Purple, being composed of red and violet or blue, is to the red-blind identical with the two latter colours. For the green-blind a combination of red and violet produces white or grey, and green (*vide g*, fig. 59) produces a similar effect, but less intense.

Therefore—

The *red-blind* chooses *blue* and *violet* (6 and 7):

The *green-blind* chooses *grey* and *bright green* (8 and 9).

He who, having failed in Test I., chooses only purples, has a weak chromatic sense—i.e. he may have any of the defects enumerated under C and D on p. 237. There is no practical advantage in endeavouring to distinguish between these. The examination may close here, but the following may be used to confirm the result in those who have failed in the preceding tests.

Test III.—A bright red, such as is employed in signal flags (II. b), is used as the test skein. The confusion colours are dark and light shades of green and brown (10–13), which should be rather darker than 10, or olive colour.

The red-blind chooses a green and a dark brown (10 and 11), the latter being a combination of greenish-yellow with black.

The green-blind chooses a green, brighter to the normal eye than the red, or lighter brown (12 and 13).

A convenient arrangement of Holmgren's wools has been adopted by Dr. Thomas, of Philadelphia, and is shown in the annexed wood-cut (fig. 60). The skeins, instead of being thrown promiscuously on the table, are hung by one extremity from a bar, and to each skein is attached a number, which is, however, concealed from view while the instrument is in use.

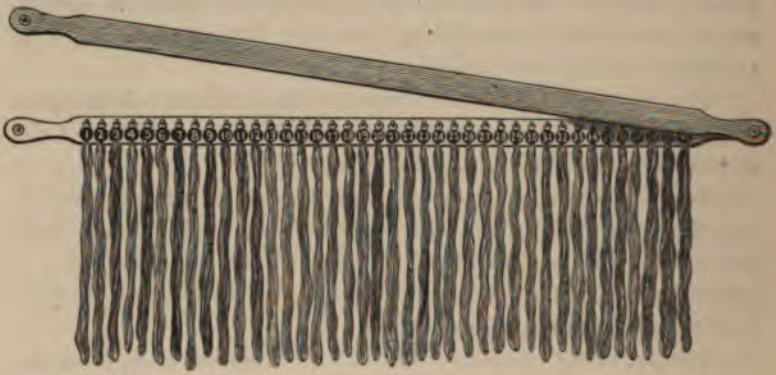


FIG. 60.—Dr. Thomas's Arrangement of Holmgren's Wools.

The skeins, of which there are forty, are numbered in the following manner: The test colours are Nos. 1, 21, and 31. Nos. 1 to 20 consist alternately of colours matching the test colour and the confusion colours. In the same way with Nos. 21 to 30 in the second test, and with Nos. 31 to 40 in the third test. The wools should be arranged in an irregular order on the bar (not as they are shown in the figure), and the numbers of the skeins which the examinee chooses in each test are noted; if his colour-vision is normal these will of course consist only of odd numbers.

The frequency of colour-blindness.—It has been ascertained by the examination of large numbers of people, chiefly by Continental and American observers, that the number of colour-blind persons is on an average a little over 4 per cent. of the male population. In consequence of this discovery the Governments of various countries have been urged to make compulsory the testing of the colour-vision of railway employees and seamen; and in this respect Professor Holmgren, in Sweden, and Dr. Joy Jeffries, in America, have been especially active.

It was felt that it was extremely important to ascertain whether the frequency of colour-blindness was as great in this country; and the Ophthalmological Society of Great Britain accordingly, in 1880, appointed a committee, of which the writer was a member, to investigate the subject. The following are some of the results.[1]

The total number examined was 18,088; of these, 16,431 were males and 1,657 were females.

Of the males, 1,785 were taken from classes which it was suspected might contain an exceptionally high percentage of colour-blind—these were imbeciles, deaf mutes, members of the Society of Friends, and Jews—all, except the first, gave a percentage above the average.

Deducting these, there remain 14,846 males, and of these 4·16 per cent. had defective colour-vision, in 3·5 per cent. the defect being of the pronounced character classified under B on p. 236. Comparing different classes of society together, colour-blindness would seem to diminish in proportion as education improves. Thus, among the schools of the poorer classes in Dublin[2] the average of pronounced cases was 4·2 per cent. Among the (London) metropolitan police and schools of the same rank, it was 3·7 per cent. In middle-class schools it was 3·5 per cent. Among medical students and the sons of medical men, it was 2·5 per cent. Among the boys at Eton it was only 2·46 per cent.

Although, however, the frequency of the defect diminishes with the education of the class, the education of the individual has no tendency to remove the defect; this is shown by the fact that there was no appreciable difference between the children and adults in the same class, and is consistent with the history of individuals who have known themselves to be colour-blind. Thus, Dalton discovered his defect in early life, and always took great interest in comparing his ideas of colours with those of other people; yet he remained colour-blind to the same extent throughout his life; and the same has been recorded of others. Indeed, there is no case on record in which a person proved to have had congenital colour-blindness has succeeded in removing the defect.

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[1] The report of the committee is published in the *Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society*, vol. i. p. 191.

[2] These are not included in the grand total, which is for England only. The results were obtained by Mr. Swanzy from an examination of 2,859 male children.

There can be little doubt that practice in distinguishing between colours, continued through several generations, would have a tendency to produce higher development of the percipient elements, while want of practice continued in the same way would lead to their degeneration. In this way may probably be explained the great rarity of colour-blindness among women (only 0·4 per cent. of the number examined, and those for the most part slight cases), and its comparative frequency among the Society of Friends (5·9 per cent. of males and 5·5 of females).

The defect having once appeared, would have a tendency to be handed down to posterity, especially if intermarriage took place within a class in which colour-blindness was especially frequent. In connection with this it is interesting to note, that the daughters of a colour-blind parent, although not exhibiting the defect themselves, may yet transmit it to their children. Thus, in an instance which came under the writer's own observation: a colour-blind parent had seven sons, all of whom were colour-blind except the youngest, and three daughters, none of whom were colour-blind, but the son of the only daughter who married was colour-blind.

In order to demonstrate the importance of excluding colour-blind persons from any employment in which the recognition of signal lights is called for, Mr. Nettleship has constructed a lantern by means of which two lights similar to signal lights could be seen, either separately or side by side. In experiments which he made in conjunction with Dr. Brailey on colour-blind persons, the following conclusions were arrived at.[1]

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[1] Appendix C. to Report on Colour-Blindness, *loc. cit.* p. 206.

1. When red and green are shown together, they are often correctly distinguished if well within the maximum distance.
2. If white and red, or white and green, are shown, they are always seen to be different, but are often wrongly named.
3. By using various shades of smoked glass it is possible to make the white light undistinguishable from either red or green to the colour-blind.
4. When only one light is shown, whether white, red, or green, it is often, but by no means always, wrongly named.

CHAPTER XI.

ON THE CRYSTALLINE LENS.

ANATOMY — VARIETIES OF CATARACT — ETIOLOGY—SYMPTOMS—TREATMENT —NEEDLE OPERATION—LINEAR EXTRACTION—SUCTION—FLAP OPERATION—GRAEFE'S LINEAR AND ALLIED OPERATIONS—EXTRACTION IN CAPSULE—AFTER-TREATMENT—COMPLICATIONS—DISLOCATION OF THE LENS.

The crystalline lens is a transparent, biconvex, solid body, inclosed in a transparent elastic membrane—the lens capsule. In front of the lens is the iris. When the pupil is contracted the iris rests on the anterior surface of the lens, and is pushed somewhat forwards by it; when the pupil is fully dilated, no part of the lens is in contact with the iris; while in intermediate conditions a corresponding extent of the surface of the iris is in contact with the lens. Behind, the lens rests entirely against the vitreous humour.

When the accommodation is relaxed, the convexity of the lens is greatest posteriorly; during the act of accommodation, the convexity of the anterior surface is greatly increased, and that of the posterior very slightly, if at all, so that the curvature of the two surfaces is then very nearly equal.

The measurements of the lens in adult life are from 8 to 9 mm. across, and 4 to 5 mm. from before backwards.

By a series of admirably conducted experiments made upon lenses in each decade of adult life, Priestley Smith[1] has found that the average weight of the lens continually increases, the increase being at the rate of about 1·5 milligrammes each year; also that the volume of the lens increases continually, at the rate of about 1·5 cubic mm. each year.

Histology.—The capsule is thickest in front, and diminishes towards the posterior pole. The part which covers the front of the lens (anterior capsule) is lined with a single layer of hexagonal, transparent, granular-looking, epithelial cells, each having an oval or a spherical nucleus. This layer of cells is of great physiological importance; from it the lens fibres are probably derived. It governs the nutrition of the lens by promoting proper osmosis between the lens tissue and the lymph in the anterior chamber (Leber). In this nutritive function it is probably greatly assisted by the ciliary processes, which are in close contact with the suspensory ligament just before it reaches the capsule.

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[1] *Trans. Ophth. Soc.* vol. iii.

The part which is behind the lens (posterior capsule) has no epithelial lining of this kind; it is in close contact with the lens-substance in front and with the vitreous humour posteriorly.

The substance of the lens is made up of lens fibres and interstitial substance. The fibres are band-like structures, each containing an oval nucleus; they extend between the anterior and posterior surfaces of the lens, and are arranged in concentric lamellæ parallel to the surface. Each lamella consists of a single layer of lens fibres joined at their broad surfaces. Their extremities are slightly enlarged. At the two surfaces of the lens these extremities are united together by three ray-like structures, which in the early stage of cataract can often be seen by focal illumination, in the form of white lines diverging from the poles to the circumference at equal angles. In the natural state these sutures contain a semi-fluid, homogeneous, interstitial cement substance. A similar substance is contained between the lamellæ, and, in smaller quantity, between the fibres of each lamella (Klein). In this cement substance there exist certain channels, from which fine canals extend between the fibres of the lamellæ. These probably have an important bearing on the changes in the shape of the lens during accommodation, and in the nutrition of the organ (Otto Becker). The central portion of the lens is of firmer consistence than that of the periphery, hence the central portion of the lens is called *the nucleus* and the peripheral portion *the cortex*. This distinction is, however, entirely arbitrary, there being no distinct line of demarcation between the two portions. In young subjects the lens substance is soft and easily broken down; with age it becomes gradually firmer, and its form less convex.

The suspensory ligament of the crystalline lens (zonule of Zinn) is a fibrillated elastic membrane, extending from the region of the ora serrata of the retina to the equator of the crystalline lens. It was formerly considered to be formed by the anterior division of a hyaloid membrane which inclosed the vitreous humour; the researches of Iwanoff,[1] however, have shown that this membrane is identical with the membrana limitans of the retina, and that the suspensory ligament is formed from three chief sources: (1) from the continuation of the membrana limitans interna of the retina; (2) from fine fibrils derived from just below the surface of the vitreous in the region of the ora serrata; (3) from fine filaments arising from the rod-like cells of the pars ciliaris retinæ. The membrane thus formed follows the sinuosities of the ciliary processes, and is continued forwards to the anterior part of the equator of the capsule of the lens, to which it is firmly attached in a tortuous line. Before it reaches the equator of the lens the suspensory ligament is separated from the vitreous by a space—*the canal of Petit*—which is probably occupied by lymph during life. The relation of the suspensory ligament to the surrounding structures is of great practical importance, more especially with regard to accommodation to the extraction of cataract, and to dislocation of the lens. The function of the suspensory ligament is probably that of maintaining the lens *in situ*, and of controlling its accommodative changes. It offers no obstacle to the interchange of fluids between the aqueous and vitreous chambers.

Cataract is an opaque condition of the crystalline lens, which is due to structural changes of its component fibres. The opacity varies so much in the portion of the lens which is first affected, in its rate of progress, in the time of life at which it occurs, in its colour and consistency, and in its causes, that it is difficult to construct a good classification. The following arrangement of the different forms of cataract may be found useful:

1. *Nuclear*; 2. *Cortical*; 3. *Lamellar*; 4. *Pyramidal*; 5. *Posterior polar*; 6. *General or mixed*.

1. *Nuclear or central cataract.*—In this form the opacity

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[1] Stricker's *Handbook of Histology*.

commences in the central portion of the lens, and gradually shades off towards the periphery (see figs. 9 and 10, opposite p. 250). Its rate of increase varies considerably, the whole lens in some cases becoming opaque in the course of a few months, whilst in others the cortex may remain clear for years. Its colour is usually that of amber; sometimes it is almost white, or brown, and occasionally quite black. It mostly occurs after the age of fifty—very frequently from fifty to fifty-five. It may, however, come on at any age, or be present at birth.

2. *Cortical cataract* commences on both surfaces of the lens in the form of pyramidal streaks, having their bases at the equator of the lens, and their apices directed towards its antero-posterior axis (see figs. 7 and 8, opposite p. 250); these are usually irregular in length and breadth. They are at first quite covered by the iris, and can then only be seen by dilating the pupil. After a time, however, they encroach upon the central portion of the lens, and can be seen within the normal pupillary area. These streaks finally become united into a mass of cortical opacity; the central portion also becomes opaque, and the whole lens is thus rendered cataractous. This form of opacity is of frequent occurrence in old people, and is but rarely seen before the age of fifty. When progressive, as it usually is, cortical cataract shows great variation in its rate of increase.

3. **Lamellar cataract** (Zonular).—In this form both the central and the peripheral portions are unaffected, but a shell-like layer of opacity exists between the centre and the surface of the lens (see figs. 5 and 6, opposite p. 250). The exact position of this lamina is variable, but it is usually between the inner and outer fourths of the substance of the lens. It is generally very thin and delicate in structure, and has a faint bluish-white semi-transparent appearance; its surface is smooth, or only slightly granular; and if this condition continues it appears to remain stationary; occasionally, however, there appear dots of denser opacity upon its surface, which increase at the expense of the peripheral portion of the lens, and may often be seen as delicate radial projections directed towards the surface. As a rule, lamellar cataract remains stationary; occasionally, however, it gradually extends, and involves the whole

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE.

FIG. 1.[1]—Partial Dislocation of Lens (backwards and outwards).

„ 2.—Dislocation of Lens (forwards).

„ 3.—Pyramidal Cataract.

„ 4.—Pyramidal Cataract.

„ 5.—Lamellar Cataract.

„ 6.—Lamellar Cataract.

„ 7.—Cortical Cataract.

„ 8.—Cortical Cataract.

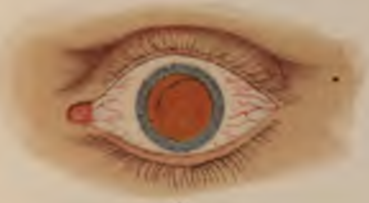
„ 9.—Nuclear Cataract.

„ 10.—Nuclear Cataract.

„ 11.—Posterior Polar Cataract.

„ 12.—Posterior Polar Cataract.

[1] N.B.—The figures in which the pupil is red represent the eye as seen by using the ophthalmoscope mirror, others as seen by the oblique focal illumination.



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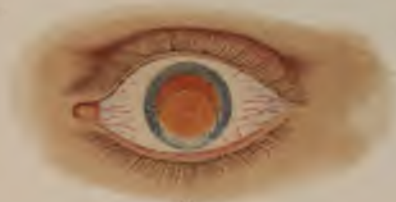

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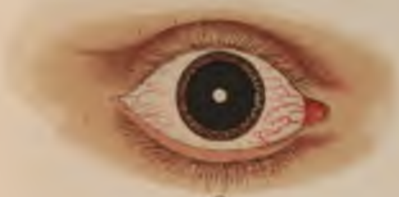

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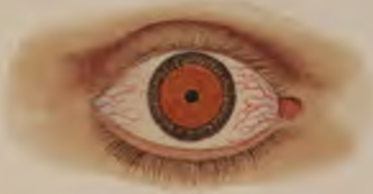

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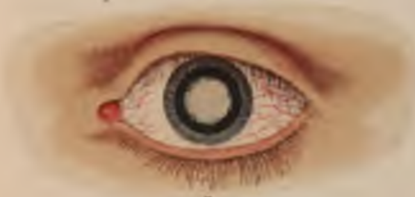

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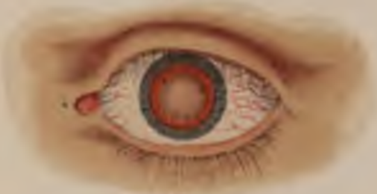

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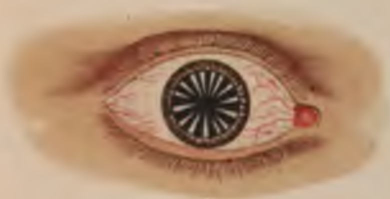

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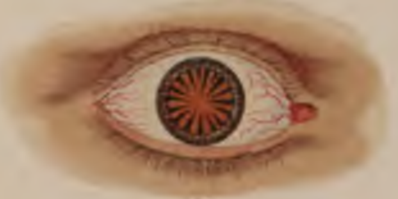

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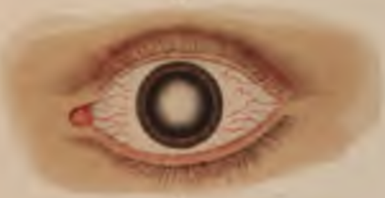

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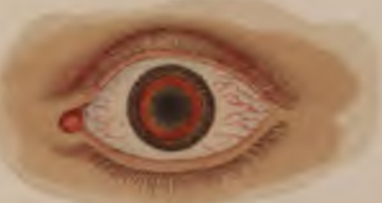

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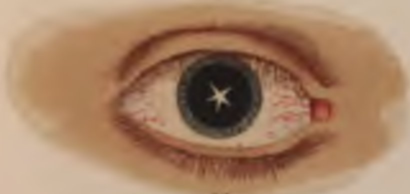

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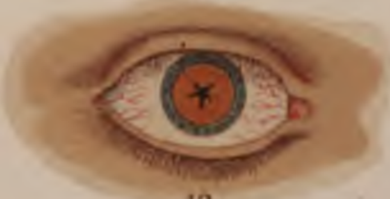

12.

Lemon & Co.

lens. This form of cataract generally comes on a few months after birth; but as the opacity is not usually sufficiently dense to be conspicuous, the condition is often not discerned until the child learns to read.[1]

4. *Pyramidal cataract* consists in a dense, chalky-white, circular patch of opacity at the anterior pole of the lens, on and immediately beneath its capsule (see figs. 3 and 4, opposite p. 250); it is usually about 1 or 2 mm. in diameter, and when viewed from the side, it is seen to stand out in front of the lens in a pyramidal form. The opacity only extends for a short distance into the lens substance; that portion of the capsule which is in front of the cataract is often somewhat puckered, and may contain deposits of organised lymph upon its anterior surface.

This condition is sometimes congenital; more often, however, it is the result of an attack of *ophthalmia neonatorum*, which has caused a central perforating ulcer of the cornea; on the escape of the aqueous humour, the lens has been pressed forwards against the cornea, the perforation becoming closed by lymph; the aqueous has then re-collected, and the lens, being thus pressed back to its normal position, has carried with it a little mass of lymph. In such cases, a central opacity of the cornea can usually be seen by focal illumination; occasionally, however, cases are met with in which there are a faint central nebula of the cornea and pyramidal cataract without any history of purulent conjunctivitis. Pyramidal cataract is always stationary.

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[1] Since the growth of the lens takes place by means of new material formed on its surface, the occurrence of a layer of cloudy lens substance at a certain depth would seem to indicate that, at some period during its growth, there had been an interference with the general health, which had led to the deposit during that period of imperfect lens material. This is supported by the fact that in children with lamellar cataract a history of convulsions in infancy can generally be obtained, while there is usually a peculiar appearance of the permanent teeth, consisting in a defect in the enamel which renders them of a bad colour; they generally present a constriction a little below the summit of the teeth, and the surface has a corrugated appearance. These changes are generally most marked in the molars. It will often be found that mercurial powders have been administered for the convulsions, and it is thought by some that the condition of the teeth, and possibly also that of the lens, is due to this circumstance.

5. *Posterior polar cataract* is the term applied to any opacity situated on the posterior pole of the lens or its capsule. The opacity is usually small, round, and white; it not unfrequently has minute streaks radiating from it. Sometimes, although appearing to be on the posterior capsule, it is in reality in the fore part of the vitreous (see figs. 11 and 12, opposite p. 250). Posterior polar cataract may be congenital or acquired. The congenital form is probably in some way connected with imperfect absorption of the fœtal hyaloid artery; and cases have been recorded in which a minute thread, corresponding in position and size to that structure, has been visible passing back from the opacity towards the optic disc. The acquired form is generally progressive, and is nearly always secondary to disease of the vitreous or choroid.

6. *General or mixed cataracts* include all those in which the opacity occurs both in the cortex and nucleus, whether these are completely opaque or merely dotted throughout with spots or striæ of opacity. Such cataracts are met with in endless variety, and no useful purpose would be served by a more detailed classification of them.

Many of the *congenital cataracts* would come under this heading. These may occur in one or both eyes. Usually the whole lens is opaque; but exceptional forms occur, such as the anterior and posterior polar, and cataracts in which the opacity is distributed irregularly. Not unfrequently, in congenital cataracts the pupil acts very imperfectly to atropine, and the eye is often defective in other respects, so that, even after a successful operation, the vision is not good.

Cataracts are generally classed as being either *hard* (senile) or *soft*; and although all intermediate degrees of consistency are met with, the distinction has a practical importance, as the two classes are amenable to different modes of treatment. The soft, if broken up, are readily dissolved by the aqueous, and can be absorbed with that fluid, while it is impossible to extract the lens from its capsule *en masse*. The hard cataracts, on the contrary, when broken up imbibe the aqueous humour, and undergo much swelling, but show little tendency to become absorbed; on the other hand, when they have reached a certain stage of maturity, they can be shelled out entire from the capsule. One may say that, as a rule (to which there are many exceptions), cataracts which occur before the age of thirty or thirty-five are soft, and those occurring after that age are hard.

A hard cataract which has reached its full development may undergo pathological softening; this usually begins in the cortical portion of the lens, which becomes more or less milky in appearance. Sometimes the fluidity of the cortical structure is such that the harder central portion (nucleus) floats about; this constitutes what is known as the *cataract of Morgagni*.

The causes of cataract are still very obscure. The opacity appears to be due to atrophic degeneration of the lens fibres. This is probably the result of defective nutrition, although it is frequently developed without any perceptible local or general cause.

1. *Senility.*—In many cases the disease appears to be due to the decline of vitality in the tissues of the body, either from age, anxiety, or dissipated habits.

2. *Diabetes.*—A large proportion (about 6 per cent.) of diabetic patients suffer from cataract. This is usually of the soft variety, and matures slowly. It is well to bear in mind that other ocular affections are common in this disease, such as *paresis of accommodation*, *amblyopia*, *hemiopia*, *retinitis*, and *optic nerve atrophy*. Nevertheless, diabetic cataracts may be operated upon successfully; in fact, many surgeons are of opinion that the eye recovers from the effect of the operation as readily as in health.

3. *Ergotism* has been observed to produce cataract; it is supposed to act by causing spasmodic contraction of the vessels of the ciliary body.

4. *Local diseases* of the iris, choroid, or ciliary body, as in the secondary cataract of glaucoma, and of sympathetic disease.

5. *Injury.*—This may consist in a blow upon the globe, by which the capsule is ruptured, or the lens is entirely or partially dislocated; it may be wounded by a sharp instrument, or a foreign body may have entered or passed through it. Opacity may follow a perforation caused by an ulcer of the cornea, as, for example, the pyramidal cataract.

6. *Convulsions.*—The possibility of convulsions being a cause of lamellar cataract has already been referred to (p. 251).

7. *Inherited syphilis* is considered to be an occasional cause of congenital cataract (Hutchinson).

The symptoms and diagnosis of cataract.

1. Gradual failure of vision, and an inability to obtain suitable glasses, are usually the first symptoms complained of by elderly patients. The vision is generally worse in one eye than in the other. In the early stage of those forms of cataract where the opacity commences within the central portions of the lens, the patient can always see better when placed in any condition that favours the dilatation of the pupil; he will therefore prefer a dull day or the twilight, and his vision will be improved by wearing a shade, or by standing with his back to the light; his distant vision will be better after the use of atropine.

With the progress of the cataract towards maturity, all useful vision disappears. First, all distant test types and objects are lost to sight; then the reading power, even for the largest type, gradually goes; lastly, the patient is unable to count fingers when held up within from 20 to 40 cm. of the affected eye. In no case of cataract, however, is the opacity so dense as to prevent the patient from distinguishing between light and darkness. In the broad daylight, when placed with his face towards the window, he perceives a shadow when the hand is passed in front of the eyes; and in a dark room he can localise the position of the flame of a lamp or candle. This *perception of light* should always be present in mature cataract; its absence indicates the existence of disease in the fundus oculi. Of course in such a case no operation could be of any possible benefit.

Owing to the changes which occur in the various sectors of the lens during the development of cataract, it sometimes happens that monocular diplopia and irregular astigmatism are developed.

In children there is generally a history of 'near-sightedness,' which is usually noticed as soon as the child begins to read. This is due to the fact that the book is held close to the face in order to obtain larger retinal images, and it is more particularly noticeable in lamellar cataracts. When the opacity is denser, as is usually the case in congenital cataracts, the white reflex from the pupil is often noticed within a few days after birth.

2. *Changes in the appearances of the pupil.*—In young subjects the normal pupil looks quite black, whether seen by diffused light or by focal illumination; after the age of thirty-five, however, it often happens that a grey, hazy appearance is presented, which may easily be mistaken for cataract. A diagnosis should therefore never be given on the strength of this appearance only. When, on account of gradual failure of sight or other symptoms, the presence of opacity of the lens is suspected, the pupil should be dilated by the use of some mydriatic (F. 17, 20, or 22), and the patient examined in a dark room by means of *the ophthalmoscope*, and by *the oblique focal illumination.* By using a concave or a plane mirror at a distance of about one metre (40 inches) in front of the eye, any opacity of the transparent media can be at once detected. In the normal fundus, as already described (p. 134), there is a homogeneous, bright, orange-red reflection lighting up the whole area of the dilated pupil. Any opacity existing in the vitreous, the crystalline lens, or the cornea, would intercept the rays reflected from the fundus, and so would appear dark (black) in proportion to its density.

To ascertain the position of the opacity, oblique focal illumination (p. 70) should be employed; by this means opacities of the cornea or lens can be at once recognised. If the opacity cannot be thus detected, recourse should be had to direct ophthalmoscopic examination, when an opacity in the vitreous will at once be recognised, and its depth approximately measured by finding what is the strongest convex lens with which it can be distinctly seen. In many cases the vitreous is fluid, and the opacities are seen to float about as the affected eye is quickly moved in any direction. As seen by the oblique focal illumination, the opacity of the lens appears in its true colour, and the transparent portions no longer present a red reflex. The characters presented by the various immature and partial cataracts when examined by these methods, are given in the figures opposite p. 250; it will be observed that in the nuclear form the opacity is most dense at the centre, and gradually fades away at the outer part. When the cortical or central portion of the lens is sufficiently clear for an ophthalmoscopic examination to be made, advantage should be taken of this opportunity to ascertain the condition of the fundus; such knowledge will be useful with regard to the probable results of a future operation, and cannot be obtained later on when the cataract has become more general.

In the lamellar form, if the pupil is widely dilated the periphery of the lens is seen to be clear, while in the centre of the pupil the shell of opacity forms a regular circular area of darker colour, which is often sufficiently thin to allow of the fundus being seen through it; the edge of this often appears darker owing to the opaque shell being viewed 'end-on;' occasionally minute striæ can be seen radiating from the opacity into the otherwise clear periphery.

The treatment of cataract.—In no case can the opacity of the crystalline lens be made to recede by the use of therapeutic agents; the question of treatment therefore resolves itself into the best means of restoring vision by operative measures.

1. **By artificial pupil.**—When the cataract is non-progressive, and the extent of the opacity is such that its area is equal to, or very slightly greater than that of the normal pupil, much benefit is sometimes derived from the formation of an artificial pupil. In such cases the patient may be able to see tolerably well in the twilight with deeply tinted glasses, by shading the eyes, or by other conditions which favour the dilatation of the pupil; but is quite incapacitated for useful vision by the presence of diffused bright light, which causes contraction of the pupil. In order to ascertain the probable result of an artificial pupil in a case of this description, the pupil should be thoroughly dilated with atropine; the vision for distant types should then be carefully tested, any existing error of refraction being at the same time neutralised by means of the correcting glasses. If this dilatation of the pupil is found to materially improve the distant vision, so that the patient is enabled to see the letters corresponding to $\frac{6}{12}$, $\frac{6}{18}$, or even $\frac{6}{24}$ of Snellen, it may be anticipated that the vision will be still more improved by the formation of a small artificial pupil in the downward and inward direction; and that after the operation, when the accommodating power of the eye is no longer paralysed by atropine, he will also possess good near vision. The size of the artificial pupil must vary according to the extent of the opacity; so long as it is

brought opposite to the clear portion of the lens, the smaller it is, the better will it be for distinctness of vision. It may be made by iridectomy, by iridotomy, or by iridodesis. The method I prefer in these cases is that of iridectomy by means of the hook, as described on p. 161. The artificial pupil made in this manner is narrow, especially at its periphery, and there is not so much spherical aberration as occurs in larger iridectomies in which a considerable extent of the lens margin is exposed.

In suitable cases this operation possesses at least two advantages over the removal of the lens—namely, that the operation itself is practically free from risk; and, secondly, that the power of accommodation is retained.

When the distant vision is not improved by full dilatation of the pupil, it may be concluded that an artificial pupil would be of no service, and recourse had better be had to one of the operations to be presently described for the absorption, or the removal of the lens itself.

2. **By solution and absorption.**—Any kind of cataract, whether nuclear, lamellar, cortical, or general, occurring in subjects under thirty-five years of age is, as we have mentioned, *soft* in structure. By lacerating the anterior capsule, and breaking-up the laminæ of such a lens, the aqueous humour is brought into immediate contact with its fibres, and has the effect of causing them to become opaque and swollen. This effect is produced within the first twenty-four hours after the operation, and is immediately followed by a process of gradual disintegration, solution, and absorption. This method is called discission, or the needle operation. It may be employed in any soft cataract which is not amenable to treatment by the formation of an artificial pupil. The younger the subject the more quickly do solution and absorption take place, and the less liable is the eye to severe inflammation after the operation. After the age of thirty-five the nuclear portion of the lens is so hard that the number of operations, and the time required for solution, are beyond endurance, while the larger size of the lens, and the greater intolerance of the eye to increased intra-ocular tension, render this operation more dangerous than in younger subjects.

The Needle Operation (Discission, Solution) gives so little pain that, except in young children and in persons of nervous temperament, anæsthesia is not necessary. The pupil must be dilated by the previous use of a mydriatic (F. 19, 21, 22). The positions of the operator and the patient are the same as for iridectomy (p. 158). The lids being separated by a speculum, and the globe held steady by fixation forceps or with the fingers, a cataract needle (fig. 61) is passed obliquely through the outer part of the cornea into the anterior chamber. Its point is then made to perforate the anterior capsule of the lens within the area of the dilated pupil (see fig. 62). By gentle to-and-fro movements the capsule is now lacerated, and the lens matter having been broken up to the extent desired, the needle is gradually withdrawn. The best part of the cornea at which to insert the needle is that at from 2 or 3 mm. from the outer extremity of its horizontal diameter. The extent to which the capsule should be lacerated, and the lens matter stirred up, depends upon the nature of the case. Care should be taken not to wound the posterior capsule of the lens, as the vitreous is then liable to come forward, and so to interfere with the action of the aqueous upon the lens. To prevent this accident needles are often made with a shoulder or 'stop,' as the left one in fig. 61; this, however, is not a sufficient safeguard for a clumsy operator, and is quite unnecessary for anyone of average dexterity; it is, however, a slight advantage, as it gives firmness to the needle. In a properly constructed cataract needle the shaft should exactly fit the puncture, if it fits too loosely aqueous will leak out, if too tightly its movements will be impeded. The complete solution of a lens by this process usually requires the performance of three or four needle operations and occupies a period varying

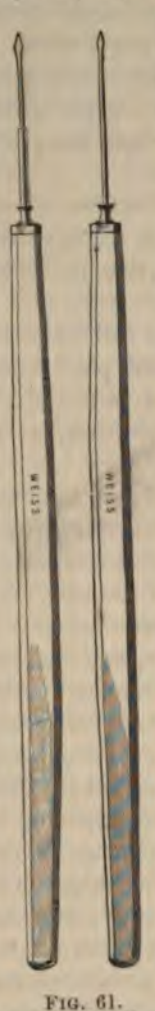

FIG. 61.
Cataract Needles.

from four to eight weeks. At the *first needling* it is best not to do more than lacerate the capsule and the most anterior layers of the lens substance by a slight vertical or crucial incision. This is usually followed by increased opacity of the lens substance, which swells up and bulges forwards through the pupil, so that it may be seen projecting into the anterior chamber. After the operation the pupil must be kept dilated by the use of 1 per cent. solution of atropine every three hours; the patient should be kept in bed, the room darkened, and the closed lids kept constantly cool by means of lint dipped in cold or iced water during the first forty-eight hours; after that time, if the case is doing well the wet dressing may be replaced by a single layer of dry lint and a bandage; both the eyes should still be screened from the light, either by means of a dark shade over the bandage, or by remaining in the dark room.

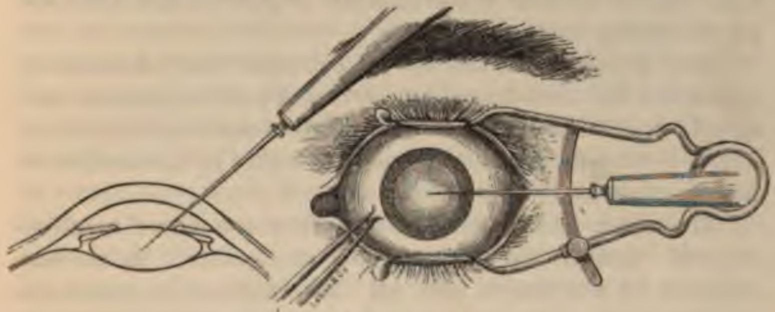
FIG. 62.—The Needle Operation.

Complications.—Although a simple and easy operation, several precautions are necessary.

(i.) The laceration of the capsule and the lens must not be too extensive, especially at the first needling, otherwise the masses of crystalline lens become so rapidly swollen by imbibition of the aqueous as to set up *increased intra-ocular tension.* For similar reasons the iris and ciliary body are liable to become irritated by the swollen lens to such an extent as to cause *iritis* or *irido-cyclitis.*

(ii.) During the three days succeeding the operation the eye requires careful watching and treatment. The occurrence of slight ciliary congestion, without pain, need cause no anxiety;

but if the redness around the circumference of the cornea increase, and be accompanied by pain, and by symptoms of commencing iritis, a few leeches should be at once applied to the lower lid, the atropine repeated more frequently, and the iced-water dressing continued.

(iii.) If these remedies do not cut short the inflammatory symptoms, but are followed by increasing pain, congestion, and symptoms of irido-cyclitis, or glaucomatous tension, the soft lens matter must be *immediately* removed, either by the method of linear extraction or by suction.

The exact period at which to perform the *second needling* must be decided by the condition of the eye. In no case should it be undertaken until all the inflammatory symptoms which may have been produced by the first operation have entirely subsided, leaving the eye perfectly quiet, free from all pain, and without a trace of redness in the circum-corneal zone. As a rule it is well to wait until the process of absorption seems to be at a standstill; if, however, it is wished to hasten the process there is no objection to repeating the needling as soon as all irritation has ceased.

In the second and third operations the needle may be used more freely than in the first, as there is less risk of setting up inflammatory mischief. When absorption progresses slowly, some surgeons perform repeated paracenteses of the anterior chamber in order to evacuate the aqueous humour, which is saturated with the substance of the lens.

The needle operation is often required after the extraction of cataract, when a portion of capsule lies in the pupil. A single needle may suffice for this purpose, but when the capsule is tough it is always better to use two, otherwise the attachment of this membrane in the region of the ciliary body is necessarily dragged upon, and cyclitis is very likely to be set up; if, on the other hand, two needles are used, the rent can be made by tearing from the centre, without the least traction on the ciliary attachment.

The needle operation is often supplemented by the subsequent removal of the soft lens matter, either by linear extraction or by suction. These operations save a good deal of time, and are sometimes necessary, as we have seen, to counteract inflammatory symptoms after a simple needling.

The linear operation (Gibson) consists in the removal of a soft lens through a small incision in the cornea. It is especially indicated in cases of traumatic cataract, whether produced by the needle operation or by any other injury, in which the eye has become painful and inflamed. When employed for the removal of other forms of soft partial cataract, as the lamellar, the linear extraction should be preceded by the needle operation (p. 258), the anterior capsule of the lens being *freely* lacerated, in order that the lens matter may be rendered more soft and so escape more freely from the corneal wound. Some surgeons, however, prefer to complete the operation at one sitting, and in order to do this they lacerate the anterior capsule of the lens by means of a cystitome (fig. 78) introduced on the flat, through the corneal wound.

When the needle operation is performed as the first stage of the operation, the interval of time which should elapse between this and the extraction of the softened lens matter must vary with the condition of the eye. Should the latter remain quiet, and free from any marked pain or redness, it may with advantage be left until the sixth or eighth day. But should there be considerable pain, and especially if this is combined with inflammatory or glaucomatous symptoms, the extraction should be effected without further delay.

Operation.—The pupil being widely dilated by atropine, the patient thoroughly anæsthetised, the eyelids separated by a speculum, and the globe held steady by fixation forceps, a bent broad needle (fig. 48) is passed through the cornea into the anterior chamber in a direction parallel to the plane of the iris. The incision should be about 2 mm. within the margin of the cornea on its temporal side; its width should be about 5 or 6 mm. If the greater part of the lens substance still lies within the capsule, the latter should be freely incised before the needle is withdrawn. The broad needle is then withdrawn and laid aside, and the curette (fig. 63) taken up. Gentle

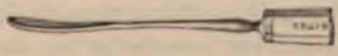

FIG. 63.—Curette.

pressure is first made with this upon the outer lip of the wound, and is usually followed by the exit of a considerable quantity of aqueous humour and soft lens matter; the curette may then be carefully introduced through the wound into the area of the pupil, when any remaining lens matter will usually be found to escape along its groove. Should any fragments of lens still remain, they may be followed by the curette, and the point of the latter dipped beneath them so as to scoop them out.

Accidents and complications.—(i.) Care must be taken in using the curette not to rupture the posterior capsule; this accident is liable to be followed by protrusion of the vitreous forwards into the anterior chamber and through the corneal wound. If this should occur no further attempt should be made to remove the lens matter.

(ii.) Unless the curette be gently manipulated the iris may be contused; a slight injury of this structure is liable to be followed by inflammation and plastic exudation.

(iii.) At the time of the first escape of the aqueous, after the incision of the cornea, the iris is occasionally found to protrude between the lips of the wound. This can often be returned by gentle pressure with the curette or spatula. Should it be found impossible to do this, the protruding portion must be seized with forceps and excised with the iridectomy scissors. Some surgeons prefer to remove a small piece of iris in all cases.

The after treatment is the same as for the needle operation.

The suction operation is similar in principle to that just described, and, like it, may be performed all at one sitting, but is generally more successful when preceded by the needle operation. It consists in the removal of the soft lens matter by means of an aspirator passed through a small wound in the cornea. The same interval of time, &c. between the needling and the removal of lens matter are necessary here as in the linear operation.

Operation.—The patient being anæsthetised, and the eye fixed as before, an incision is made in the cornea by means of an angular broad needle (fig. 48. p. 159); the wound should be just large enough to easily admit the nozzle of the aspirator; it should be on the temporal side of the cornea, about 2 or 3 mm. from the sclerotic. The aspirator consists of a small flattened cannula, having a free opening on one side (*b*, fig. 64), and connected with a glass tube (*d d*). This is attached either to a metal piston-syringe (Bowman's), or to an india-rubber tube and mouthpiece (*e*) (Teale's). The nozzle of this instrument is passed into the anterior chamber with its concavity upwards, and placed in the most favourable position for withdrawing the lens matter without injuring the iris. Gentle suction is then made, and as much lens matter removed as possible. The nozzle must, however, not be passed behind the iris in search of fragments.

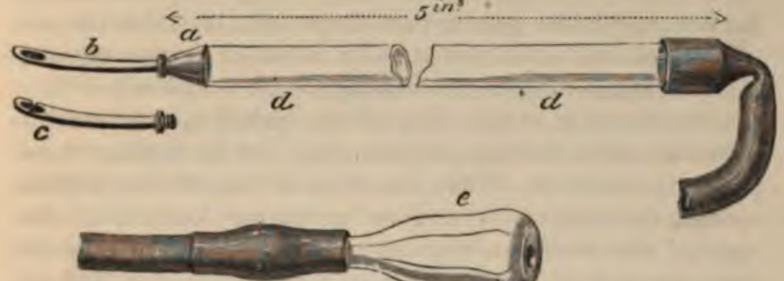

FIG. 64.—Teale's Suction Apparatus for Cataract.

The after treatment is the same as for the needle and the linear operations.

This operation requires great care and delicacy in manipulation; when successful it gives very satisfactory results, more especially in the saving of time which it effects by the early removal of the lens matter.

Unfortunately it is occasionally followed by inflammatory trouble, which sometimes leads to loss of the eye by suppuration. The first symptom of this is a continuance of the conjunctival injection and pain beyond the third day; signs of iritis then supervene—dullness of the iris and incomplete dilatation with atropine; a day or two later hypopyon may make its appearance. A good-sized iridectomy downwards will sometimes do good in this state of affairs, and occasionally the pus will be absorbed and a good result obtained; the suppuration may, however, extend to the vitreous, and shrinking of the globe ensue.

3. **By the extraction of the entire cataract.**—After the age of thirty-five the structure of the lens is so dense, and its nucleus so large, that its removal requires a larger incision than that just mentioned for the linear operation.

It is usually advisable to avoid operating until the opacity has extended to the greater part of the lens, otherwise the unaffected cortical substance remains adherent to the capsule, and although, owing to its transparency, it is difficult or impossible to see it at the time of the operation, it afterwards becomes swollen and opaque, and gives rise to trouble to be presently described. When the whole of the lens has become opaque, the cataract is said to be 'mature' or 'ripe;' the signs of this condition are, that no red reflex can be obtained from the choroid by the use of the ophthalmoscope, and no shadow is thrown by the iris upon the lens when light is projected upon the eye by oblique focal illumination. If the cataract is removed before it has reached this condition of maturity, it does not so readily shell out from the capsule, but is liable to leave behind it more or less of the transparent portion either adherent to the capsule or within the pupillary area. These remains, however, can often be evacuated at the time of the operation; when left in the eye they are apt to swell up and to cause iritis. In such cases lymph is often thrown out in considerable quantity, and, becoming organised, may form a dense membrane completely occluding the pupil. As a rule these fragments of cortical matter are eventually absorbed, but in the meantime irreparable mischief may have been set up by their presence.

There are, however, many circumstances which sometimes render it highly inconvenient, if not altogether impossible, to wait for the complete maturity of a cataract. There may be commencing, or equally advanced, cataract in the second eye, by which the patient is deprived of all useful vision, and is consequently debarred from following his usual occupation. The patient's place of residence may be beyond the reach of surgical skill, and he may be unable to present himself for periodical examination. In such cases the extraction of the immature cataract at the earliest possible date is imperative. Under such circumstances it is best to perform an iridectomy upwards as a preliminary operation, and after the lapse of six or eight weeks to extract the cataract from one eye at a time. This **preliminary iridectomy** does not interfere with what little vision the patient may possess—indeed, the enlargement of the pupil may improve this, and it has the effect of lessening the danger of iritis after the extraction; it also enables the cataract to be removed before it is quite mature without much risk, and in some cases seems to hasten the maturing of the cataract.

When one eye only is affected, or when the second eye is still serviceable, the removal of the lens is less urgent; if, however, the cataract is quite complete, it is better that it should be extracted without further delay. The result of the operation will not be so satisfactory to the patient as it would be if the second eye were blind, on account of the *difference of refraction* between the operated and the sound eye, but delay in extraction might cause the eye to become amblyopic from disuse. The increased visual field which is obtained by the use of both eyes is of considerable advantage, while the operated eye will be ready for use in case of the other becoming cataractous. Finally, the removal of a disfigurement, which is often very marked, is of importance from an æsthetic point of view.

When both eyes are affected at the same time, and both the cataracts mature, it is well that the two extractions should not be performed at the same sitting, but that they should be separated by an interval of some weeks. If both eyes were done together, and one of them should progress badly, it would complicate the management of its fellow; whilst in two separate operations, the failure of the first eye, during or after extraction, may enable us to take special precautions with the second; thus it might be considered better to make the incision more or less peripheral, to perform preliminary iridectomy, to extract the lens in its capsule, or to use the scoop instead of pressing upon the cornea in the removal of the lens.

The flap operation.—It was not until towards the middle of the last century that the operation of extracting a cataractous lens became a regular surgical proceeding. Previous to that date, the recognised treatment of cataract was that of *reclination* or *couching*, which consisted in dislocating the lens into the vitreous. The immediate effect of this was of course satisfactory as regards the improvement in vision, but subsequent trouble nearly always arose from the irritation set up by the displaced lens, and the eye was generally eventually lost from irido-choroiditis or glaucoma.

During the first half of the eighteenth century, extraction was occasionally performed, but to Daviel certainly belongs the credit of having definitely established the superiority of extraction over reclination.

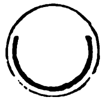
FIG. 65.

Daviel's method was to make in the cornea near its lower margin an incision with a lance-shaped knife, and to enlarge this in both directions with scissors, so that he obtained an incision concentric with the lower margin of the cornea, and extending a little above the horizontal meridian (fig. 65). The flap having been raised, the capsule was lacerated, and the lens expressed through the pupil.

Beer modified the operation by using the triangular knife which bears his name. The point of this was introduced into the cornea level with its horizontal meridian, and, while the point of the knife was carried across the anterior chamber to make its exit at a corresponding point on the other side, the edge cut its way out at the sclero-corneal junction, thus forming a flap which corresponded almost exactly with the lower half of the cornea (fig. 67). The flap thus formed was slightly smaller than Daviel's, and, being made by a simple cut, allowed of more perfect adaptation of the parts.

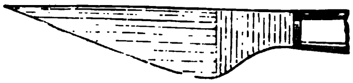
FIG. 66.—Beer's Knife.

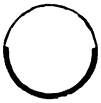
FIG. 67.

There is no doubt that the above method was a very great advance on former proceedings, and that many most excellent results were obtained by it; indeed, nothing could be more perfect than a flap operation which succeeded well; after the wound had healed there was hardly a trace of its existence left upon the cornea, and the pupil retained its natural size, form, and function; but the percentage of failure was very high, and this was in great part due to faults inherent in the method.

In the first place, the nutrition of the cornea was seriously imperilled by a section including half its circumference; in the second, the large size of the wound predisposed to prolapse of the iris, which not only delayed the union of the wound, but by its adhesion gave rise to subsequent inflammatory trouble, such as iritis and irido-cyclitis. The iris itself was, moreover, necessarily contused by the passage of the lens through the pupil, and this was often followed by iritis, which led to closure of the pupil by lymph.

Some of these dangers were lessened by *Jacobson*, who made the section in the sclerotic concentric with the cornea, thus carrying it through vascular tissue, while, owing to the larger circumference of the globe here, the same length of incision was obtained without carrying its extremities as high as the horizontal meridian (fig. 68). It is doubtful whether to *Mooren* or to *Jacobson* should be ascribed the credit of adding an iridectomy, thus obviating effects of contusion of the iris and preventing its prolapse.

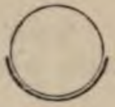
FIG. 68.

Undoubtedly the most important modification since the introduction of the operation of extraction is that which constitutes Von Graefe's operation. The principle of his operation is, that the section should be as near an approach to a line as possible, since a linear wound allows of a more perfect co-aptation than a flap; that the wound should by preference be entirely in the sclerotic; and that an iridectomy should form part of the operation.

Since the wound must have a minimum extent of 10 mm., and the ciliary body must be avoided, the direction of a 'linear' section which is to be wholly in the sclerotic allows of comparatively little variation.

Von Graefe's linear operation.—1. *The incision* is made with the right hand for the right eye, and the left hand for the left eye, the surgeon standing behind the patient's head.

The eyelids are kept open by means of a stop-speculum. There are several varieties of this instrument. The form I prefer for this operation is that shown in fig. 69. It is curved in such a manner as not to impede the movement of the instruments used, and its outer end, being well behind the plane of the eye, can, if necessary, be held by an assistant without interfering with the operator.

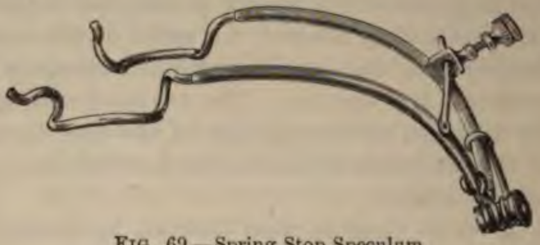

FIG. 69.—Spring Stop Speculum.

Noyes' specula (fig. 70) are also admirably adapted for cataract extraction.

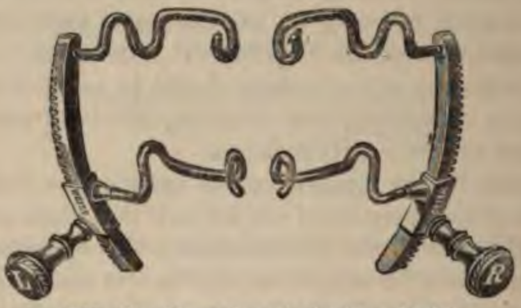

FIG. 70.—Noyes Specula (right and left).

The globe must be held steady, and kept under the control of the operator by some fixation instrument. The conjunctiva may be seized just below the position of the counter-puncture with the fixation forceps (fig. 71), or when the conjunctiva is extremely brittle the sclerotic may be held by means of a forceps with sharper and longer teeth (fig. 72).

An extremely useful instrument is the *double fixation hook* (fig. 73); it consists of two minute hooks on a single stem placed back to back, each, however, having a twist to the right; when the instrument is placed perpendicularly upon the conjunctiva and rotated to the right, it takes firm hold and rolls up a little screw of conjunctiva, which gives a good grip, and which seldom gives way; to release the globe it is only necessary to rotate the instrument to the left.

Graefe's linear knife (fig. 74), held with its cutting edge upwards, is then made to enter the sclerotic at a point 2 mm. below the upper tangent of the vertical meridian, and lying on the tangent of the transverse meridian of the cornea (A, fig. 75), and to penetrate the anterior chamber; the direction

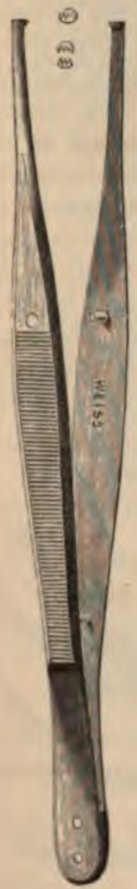

FIG. 71.—Fixation Forceps.

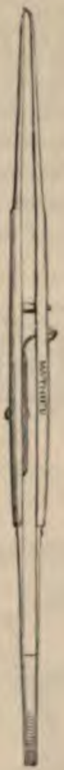

FIG. 72.—Forceps for seizing the Sclerotic.

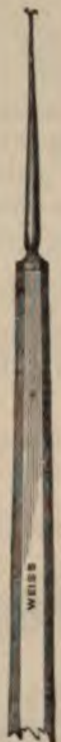

FIG. 73.—The Double Fixation Hook.

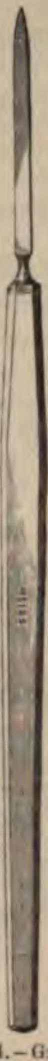

FIG. 74.—Graefe's Linear Cataract Knife.

of this penetration should be downwards and inwards towards C (fig. 75); the knife having reached the middle of the anterior chamber, its handle is slightly depressed, and its point pushed steadily onwards in front of the plane of the iris, so that a counter-puncture may be made in the sclerotic on the opposite side; in a position which should correspond to that of the puncture (B, fig. 75). The knife is now made to cut its way upwards through the sclerotic, and to come out at the junction of this with the upper part of the cornea; this is effected by pushing the knife steadily onwards as far as its heel, and then withdrawing it if necessary.

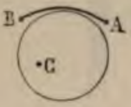

FIG. 75.

The above incision, which ordinarily goes by the name of *Von Graefe's*, has been slightly modified by different operators, and Von Graefe himself at one time made the puncture and counter-puncture somewhat higher, so that the height of the flap was less than a millimetre.[1] In nearly all modern operations the puncture and counter-puncture are made a little beyond the sclero corneal junction, and from 2 to 4 mm. from the horizontal tangent of the cornea, the line

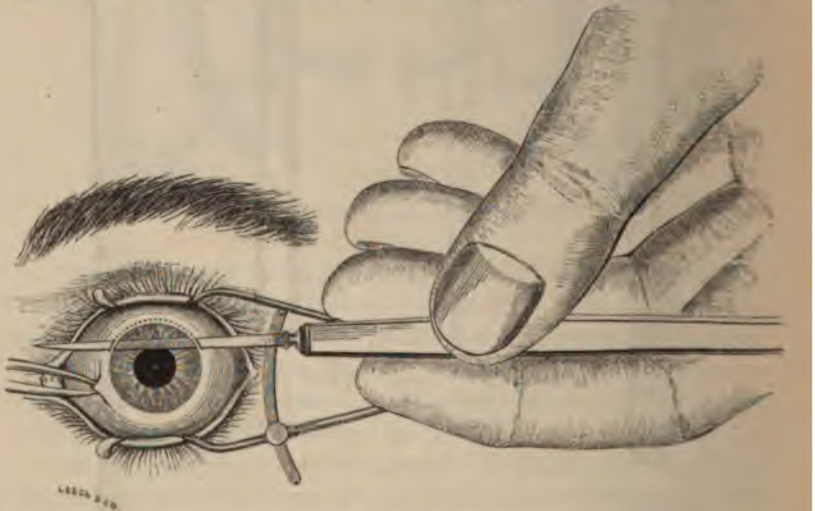

FIG. 76.—The Incision.

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[1] *Vide* letter of Von Graefe in De Wecker's *Chirurgie Oculaire*, p. 30. Paris, 1879.

of incision in some instances traverses the cornea, in others the sclero-corneal junction or the sclerotic.

Figure 76 represents the modification of this incision which, in suitable cases, is always made by my colleague **Anderson Critchett**,[1] and which I usually adopt in my own practice. The puncture and counter-puncture are made in the sclerotic at 1 mm. from the edge of the cornea and 3 mm. below its upper tangent, the knife is brought out through the sclerotic immediately above the cornea—a little nearer to this than is represented by the dotted line.

De Wecker makes a section exactly at the sclero-corneal junction of such an extent that its height is about 3 mm.

Streatfeild makes an incision corresponding to the corneal margin, but makes a puncture with a Sichel's knife, and enlarges the wound to the required extent by a gentle sawing movement, no counter-puncture being made.

Taylor makes the incision with a bent broad needle (fig. 48), and enlarges the wound as in the preceding operation. The capsule is lacerated before the iridectomy is made; and in performing the latter, a bridge of iris is left at the pupillary edge, and the lens extracted through the artificial pupil.

In **Warlomont's** operation the puncture and counter-puncture are made as in Von Graefe's, but the incision lies in the upper part of the cornea.

Liebreich's is similar to the preceding, but is performed downwards. In neither is an iridectomy performed.

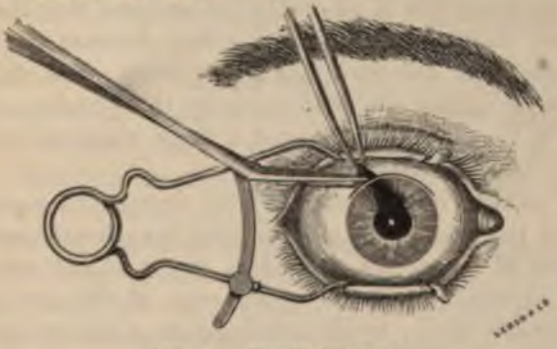

FIG. 77.—The Iridectomy.

2. *The iridectomy.*—The fixation forceps are now entrusted to the assistant, who, if necessary, will seize the ocular conjunc-

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[1] *Vide* 'Lecture on Eclecticism in Operations for Cataract.' By Anderson Critchett, *Brit. Med. Journal*, November 17, 1883.

tiva below the cornea, and gently rotate the globe downwards. The iris is now to be seized with the iris forceps near its pupillary edge, and drawn just outside one angle of the wound; whilst slight traction is made upon it in this position, a snip is made through its outer part with the iris scissors in the manner shown in fig. 77; the portion of the iris held in the forceps is then gently drawn across to the other angle, and the excision completed as near to the periphery as possible. In doing this, if the anterior conjunctival flap should be long, it must be turned forwards on to the cornea, otherwise it may be caught in the forceps with the iris, and so interfere with the excision of the latter.

3. *The laceration of the anterior capsule of the lens* is the next step in the operation. The operator again takes the fixation forceps in order to steady the globe with his left hand. The cystitome (fig. 78) is now to be gently passed, on the flat, into the anterior chamber; when it has reached the lower edge of the pupil its point is rotated towards the capsule, and the latter is freely lacerated from below upwards, and from side to side. In doing this it should be remembered that the capsule tears very readily, and that any undue pressure on the lens may cause it to sink back into the vitreous. The elasticity of the capsule causes the rent made by the cystitome to gape widely, so that if properly incised a large triangular gap is left after the lens has been removed.

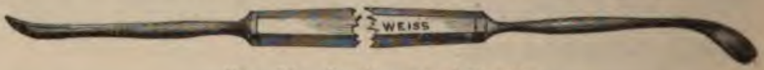

FIG. 78.—Cystitome and Curette.

The removal of the lens.—By the exercise of gentle pressure with the back of the curette upon the sclerotic and on the lower part of the cornea, the edges of the wound are seen to become separated, and the upper edge of the lens presents itself between them; by the continuation of this pressure in a direction backwards, and slightly upwards, the lens is presently expelled (fig. 79). In immature cataracts there will still remain a certain amount of soft cortical matter within the pupillary area. This should, as far as possible, be evacuated at once. Its removal may be attempted before the speculum is taken out, by gently stroking the cornea with the back of the curette from below upwards towards the wound; or, the speculum being removed, a similar pressure may be made upon the cornea through

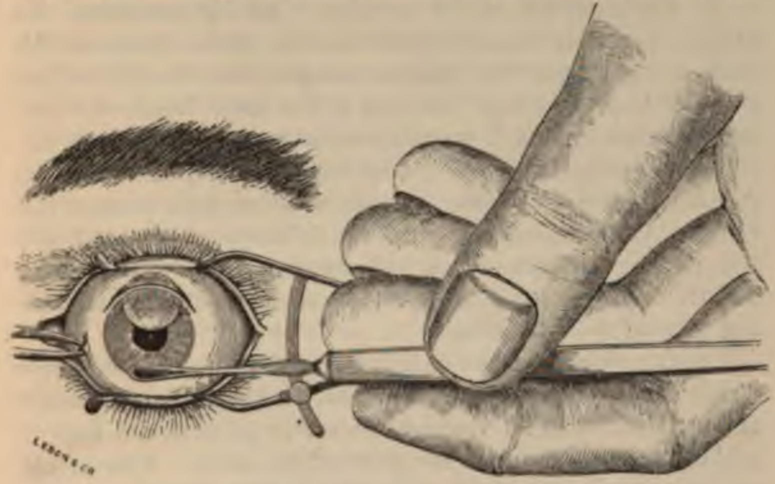

FIG. 79.—The Removal of the Lens.

the lower lid, either with the finger or the back of the curette. Either one or other of these methods of coaxing out the soft matter should be repeated until the pupil looks quite black and clear.

A patch of soft linen is then applied to the closed eyelids, and slight pressure made by means of layers of cotton wool and a light bandage. The patient may remain for a few hours upon the operating couch, or may be at once placed in bed. The room must be darkened.

Accidents and immediate complications.—1. *Wrong position of the knife.*—The operator may find that he has introduced the blade of the knife with its cutting edge downwards instead of upwards. In case of this awkward occurrence, the knife must be cautiously withdrawn on the flat, so as to avoid the escape of aqueous; if only a little aqueous is lost, the knife may be again introduced, either at the same place, or by making a fresh puncture; if much aqueous has escaped, so that the iris is bulging forwards against the cornea, the operation had better be postponed for a day or two, in order to allow time for re-secretion of the aqueous; without this, the reintroduction of the knife and the upward section would cause an irregular wound of the iris.

2. *Early escape of the aqueous.*—Having completed the puncture and the counter-puncture, the section must not be made too slowly, or the aqueous escapes, and the iris bulges forwards in contact with the edge of the knife before the section is finished. Such an accident is not very serious, as the iris has to be excised in the second stage of the operation; it is, nevertheless, much better to avoid its occurrence, because the outline of the excised portion of iris is likely to be jagged, and less regular than when the iridectomy is made with scissors, and the hæmorrhage is likely to be troublesome in the succeeding steps of the operation.

As the counter-puncture is being made, there is sometimes a rush of aqueous into the sub-conjunctival tissue, which causes the conjunctiva in its vicinity to start forwards in the form of a bladder, which obscures the point of the knife. This should be disregarded, and the blade of the knife pushed on in the horizontal direction until its point has passed through the conjunctiva.

3. *Hæmorrhage into the anterior chamber.*—The iridectomy is liable to be followed by hæmorrhage into the anterior chamber. The extravasated blood in this case comes partly from the iris and partly from the vessels in the neighbourhood of the canal of Schlemm; it usually ceases to flow after a few seconds, and should, if possible, be evacuated from the anterior chamber before the operation is proceeded with. This can usually be effected by gentle pressure with the end of the curette upon the posterior flap of the wound, or by gently stroking the cornea from below upwards with the back of the same instrument. If the bleeding cannot be stopped by these means the operation must be proceeded with. Although the capsule is now rendered invisible by the existing blood in the anterior chamber, it must still be lacerated with the cystitome, and the lens removed in the ordinary way. It usually happens that the blood escapes, and the hæmorrhage ceases with the removal of the lens.

4. *Difficulty in removing the cataract.*

a. Dislocation of the lens.—If too great pressure is made on the lens in lacerating the capsule, and occasionally without any fault of the operator, the suspensory ligament is ruptured; the lens may then immediately sink back into the vitreous, or this may not occur until pressure is made with the view of causing it to present; vitreous at the same time often appears in the wound. This backward dislocation of the lens is one of the most serious accidents that can occur during a cataract operation; not a moment should be lost in passing the large scoop (fig. 80) into the eye well behind the presumed position of the lens, and attempting to extract it in its capsule. A good deal of vitreous is generally lost, but if the lens is extracted, a very good result may be obtained.

b. The wound may be too small.—When this is the case the edge of the cataract may be seen to present between the lips of the wound, whilst the remainder refuses to come through. Under such circumstances, the section had better be enlarged at one or both extremities with small blunt-ended scissors; by making extreme pressure on the globe, the contusion of the iris and cornea in the region of the wound is liable to be followed by inflammatory trouble; while the cortical portion is likely to be scraped off and remain in the eye by endeavouring to squeeze the lens through too small an opening. Sometimes when the lens appears in the wound during the pressure with the curette, its exit may be facilitated by gentle leverage. The assistant may be able to make traction upon it by means of the cystitome, or a small hook.

c. The capsule may be incompletely lacerated.—Here the lens does not present at all. The use of the cystitome must be repeated.

5. *Escape of vitreous.*—This is always a serious complication, but the consequences of its occurrence will depend in a great measure on whether it occurs before or after the extraction of the lens. The presence of vitreous in the wound is indicated by the appearance of a perfectly transparent viscid fluid.

a. If it occurs *before* the extraction of the lens, it is generally due either to the counter-puncture having been made too far from the cornea, or to too great pressure having been employed, either with the cystitome or with the curette in the fourth stage. If the vitreous is abnormally fluid, this acts as a predisposing cause. However the escape is caused, all pressure must be at once abandoned, the speculum removed and a lid retractor (fig. 22) substituted for it, the lens should then be immediately removed with the scoop; if it still lies in its capsule, the latter must be removed with it.

The scoop (fig. 80) is introduced through the wound, and with slight lateral movements, directed downwards and slightly backwards, so as to insinuate it behind the lens; when it has reached the lower edge of the latter, its handle is slightly depressed, and it is then gradually withdrawn, with the hope of bringing out the cataract at the same time. In case of failure in this method of traction, further attempts must be made so long as the cataract can be seen through the cornea.

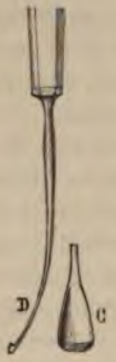

FIG. 80.—Critchett's Cataract Scoop.

b. If vitreous *follows* the escape of the lens, it is due either to the latter having been expressed too suddenly, to a weak posterior capsule, or to compression of the globe by contraction of the ocular muscles. Very slight spasm of these muscles is liable to cause evacuation of the greater part of the vitreous humour. In order to prevent this accident, the patient should be kept thoroughly under the influence of the anæsthetic; the retractor should either be held forwards by the assistant or removed altogether, and the lids then separated by the surgeon's fingers. If vomiting occur at this period, the eyelids must be closed, and supported by a compress of cotton-wool during its continuance. The treatment to be followed will depend on the amount of vitreous which escapes. If this is considerable not a moment should be lost in removing the speculum, closing the eyelids, and applying the pad. If only a small bead presents in the wound separating its lips, the projecting part may be cut away with scissors; many operators, however, prefer to close the eye at once and trust to the vitreous falling back.

The loss of a small quantity of vitreous is not a serious accident, in fact a considerable portion may escape without any *immediate* ill effects, but this is often followed at a later date by detachment of the retina, and consequent loss of vision.

Extraction in the capsule.—Some surgeons advocate the removal of the lens in its capsule, on the ground that by doing so no particles of lens matter can remain behind to set up irritation.

Pagenstecher, who is the chief supporter of this operation, makes a large incision, either upwards or downwards, entirely in the sclerotic about 1 mm. from the cornea; he then excises a large piece of the iris, and finally introduces a scoop behind the capsule of the lens, and removes the latter by traction.

Macnamara extracts the lens in the capsule without performing an iridectomy; he uses a large, straight, triangular keratome, with this he makes a large incision just within the margin of the cornea on the outer side. A scoop is then inserted through the wound as far as the outer edge of the pupil; having reached this, its handle is raised so as to bring the lower end into contact with the capsule of the lens. The scoop is now slightly withdrawn, still keeping its extremity on the lens, but so as to draw open the pupil far enough for pressure to be made on the edge of the lens with the rounded extremity of the scoop. This pressure causes the lens to tilt over, and the scoop being thrust onwards, the lens comes in front of it, and is withdrawn through the pupil and through the wound.

Extraction in the capsule would seem to be most suitable for such cataracts as are sufficiently advanced to interfere seriously with vision, but remain for many years in an immature condition. In old people the suspensory ligament is very weak, and the lens can consequently often be extracted in its capsule without the introduction of the scoop.

The after treatment and remote complications of cataract extraction.—No food or drink should be given during the three hours following the operation; should thirst be complained of, the patient may be allowed to suck a small lump of ice. After that time a light diet of beef tea, fish, and farinaceous food may be given. After the first day ordinary nourishing diet may be ordered. Alcoholic drinks are not necessary, but a small allowance may be made if the patient cannot sleep without it.

The dressings are carefully removed twice daily; the outsides of the eyelids are gently moistened with a fine sponge or cotton wool and tepid water; the lower lid may also be slightly depressed with the finger, in order to give vent to any pent-up tears.

On the third day, under favourable circumstances, the patient may be dressed and allowed to rest for a few hours on a couch, or on the outside of his bed, the eyes being still bandaged, and the room darkened. After the flap operation, no examination of the wound should be made before the eighth day: and after the peripheral linear method, the eye is better when left alone until the third or fourth day. On the twelfth day the bandage may be replaced by a large black shade covering both the eyes, so that the latter may be well protected from direct rays of bright light.

About the eighteenth day the shade may be substituted by the use of protective spectacles of dark neutral tint. About the sixtieth day the eyes will have reached the maximum of visual acuteness; they may then be tested for correcting glasses. The removal of the crystalline lens has rendered the eye exceedingly hypermetropic, and has destroyed the power of accommodation. The patient will therefore require two pairs of convex spectacles for the purposes of distinct vision—the one to render the eye emmetropic, which will enable him to see all distant objects clearly, and the other to render him myopic, so that he may be able to read small print, or to do fine work at 20 to 40 cm. from the eyes. The strength of the lenses required for these purposes is usually about 10 D and 14 D respectively: but this will of course vary with the refraction of the eye. (*See* Refraction.)

The use of the spectacles should be gradually acquired, commencing with about half an hour's practice daily.

The slight pain arising from the operation usually ceases in the course of a few hours; its disappearance is always a favourable sign. On removing the dressings during the first few days succeeding the operation, the absence of pain in and around the eye, of any swelling of the lids, and of any muco-pus, is always a guarantee that the eye is progressing favourably. If the pain should reappear towards night, and become continuous so as to render the patient restless and uncomfortable, some sedative (F. 28 or 29) should be given, in order to procure sleep.

The occurrence of severe and increasing pain during the first few days after the operation is always an indication of some complication in the process of healing, and is sufficient to justify an immediate examination of the eye. The lids should be carefully separated, and the wound and other parts examined by means of focal illumination from the light of a single candle. We may thus find that the pain is simply due to accumulated tears, to an inverted lower lid, to the presence of eyelashes within the palpebral aperture, or to the commencement of inflammation.

Iritis is an extremely common complication of cataract extraction; if an iridectomy has formed part of the operation its effects are less injurious than in the old flap operation, where it was the cause of a large percentage of failures. The most usual time for it to come on is about the fifth day after the operation. Its presence is indicated by photophobia, œdema of the lids, pain, and chemosis; there is also copious lachrymation, but not muco-purulent discharge; the cornea may be clear, but the aqueous is turbid, and the iris somewhat changed in colour. In such a case a few leeches should be applied to the temple, 1 per cent. solution of atropine dropped into the eye three or four times daily, and the eyes kept constantly warm by a large pad of cotton-wool over the closed eyelids. The extent of the damage the iritis may bring about will chiefly depend upon the amount of plastic exudation thrown out into the pupillary area; the amount of this exudation may be so great as to cause occlusion of the old pupil and of the new one formed by the iridectomy; the thick membrane thus established may also contract and draw the iris upwards towards the cicatrix, so as to diminish and displace the pupil. The inflammation may also extend to the rest of the uveal tract, setting up cyclitis or choroiditis, which may lead to complete loss of vision.

Entanglement of the iris in the angles of the wound is not uncommon where iridectomy has been performed. It is indicated by the presence of black nodules in the wound; these are of variable magnitude, and may be so extensive as to impede union, and even to form small cysts within the cicatrix. The entangled iris may also cause serious trouble by dragging upon the wound during contraction; this, again, may retard the healing process, and is often the cause of *recurrent iritis*. It may further be the means of setting up plastic *irido-cyclitis* in the operated eye; and this, as we have seen (p. 143), may extend to the second eye, and so set up *sympathetic ophthalmitis*.

The means of preventing this entanglement of iris at the time of operation have already been pointed out (p. 159); sometimes, however, this condition supervenes on the second or third day. If the knuckle of iris does not exceed 2 mm. in diameter, and give no pain, it may be disregarded; when larger than this—and especially when it evinces a tendency to increase in size, and to cause irritation of the eye—an attempt must be made to remove the prolapsed portion. This must be seized with forceps, and cut off level with the globe by means of iris scissors. The eye must be kept closed with a light compress for at least a week after this, in order to favour the consolidation of the cicatrix. Should there be a recurrence of the prolapse after the operation, it can be lightly touched from time to time with nitrate of silver.

Suppuration is attended by violent and increasing pain in and around the eye, by swelling of the eyelids, chemosis, and a copious muco-purulent discharge. It may commence at any time during the first few days following the extraction. When the lids are separated, and the eye examined during the early stage, the ocular conjunctiva is found to be distended with serum, the cornea is hazy, and the edges of the wound present a greyish-yellow appearance, indicating the formation of pus. Unless this process can be immediately checked, it will extend to the whole of the cornea, to the tunica vasculosa, and to the vitreous, thus constituting severe panophthalmitis, which must terminate in the destruction of the globe. No time must, therefore, be lost in endeavouring to reduce the inflammation. The eyelids should be widely separated, and the discharge well washed away with warm water four or five times daily; after each ablution the outsides of the eyelids and surrounding parts should be well fomented with hot water for at least an hour; between the fomentations the lids should be closed, and compressed with a disk of linen, layers of absorbent cotton-wool, and a bandage. Good nourishing diet, port wine or brandy, quinine, or bark and ammonia, should be given internally, with opiates if necessary. By these means the affection may take on a less destructive form, and may occasionally be arrested before total destruction of the eye has taken place.

Intraocular hæmorrhage from the choroidal or retinal vessels may come on immediately or shortly after the operation. Its advent is marked by severe pain; the globe is seen to be filled with blood, which escapes through the wound and oozes through the dressings. Such an eye is sure to be lost, and may require immediate excision on account of the pain and the bleeding.

Spasmodic entropion is a troublesome complication which is apt to come on a few days after the operation. The lax state of the tissues acts as a predisposing condition, while the operation wound, and possibly the compressing bandage, excite contraction of the orbicularis muscle. Unless this condition is quickly remedied, the irritation set up by the inverted lashes of the lower lid brushing against the cornea is very likely to lead to loss of the eye.

Treatment.—Sometimes it is sufficient to substitute a large shade for the bandage; if this is ineffectual or undesirable, the lid should be drawn down, and the face just below the eye well covered with a film of contractile collodion. If this fails—and it seldom does if properly applied—a fold of skin must be at once excised, as described on p. 18.

Cystoid degeneration of the cicatrix may occur after the peripheral operation with iridectomy. The iris is usually more or less entangled in the wound. It is usually due to a glaucomatous condition of the eye.

Opaque capsule. Secondary pupillary membrane.

If the anterior layer of the capsule of the lens has been properly lacerated, a large triangular gap generally remains; sometimes, however, owing either to the laceration having been insufficient, or to the capsule floating back over the pupil, a layer is left which interferes with vision; sometimes the capsule is so transparent that it can only be seen by very careful focal illumination; but even in these cases it causes considerable interference with vision, probably because it is always slightly wrinkled. In other cases the capsule forms an opaque membrane, which can be distinctly seen with the naked eye. Occasionally, a pupil which was quite clear at the time of the operation and some weeks later, subsequently presents a capsular opacity; in such cases it is probably always the posterior capsule that is in fault.

The membranes which form in the pupil as a consequence of iritis, are of much more serious importance. They are generally thick and tough; they adhere by their margins to the iris, and by their contraction tend to narrow the area of the pupil.

Treatment.—No operative measures must be had recourse to until all active signs of inflammation have subsided.

The fine membranous opacities formed of capsule only, can be readily torn through with cataract needles; for this purpose two needles should always be used, and the opening made by tearing from the centre. When it was the custom only to employ a single needle, some traction was necessarily made upon the ciliary attachment of the capsule, and, as a consequence of this, inflammatory symptoms frequently followed. To Sir William Bowman is due the credit of having suggested the simple expedient of using two needles, and thus avoiding this risk.

For the tougher membranes formed by lymph, or lymph and capsule, needling is not sufficient; in the first place, it is difficult in such a case, even with two needles, to avoid making some traction, and if inflammatory symptoms follow, the opening made generally gets closed by fresh lymph. By far the most effectual proceeding is to divide the membrane and the iris with scissors. This operation is called *iridotomy*, and is described on p. 163.

Dislocation of the crystalline lens may be congenital, spontaneous, or traumatic. *When congenital* it is due to irregular or imperfect closure of the choroidal fissure, and to deficient formation of the suspensory ligament; the luxation is usually partial, in the upward and outward direction, and generally occurs in both eyes. *When spontaneous* it is usually the result of pathological degeneration of the vitreous humour, and of the suspensory ligament. It is more commonly found amongst diseases in which these structures are known to be affected, as in sparkling synchisis, high degrees of myopia, staphyloma of the ciliary region, &c. *When traumatic* it is usually the result of a contusion of the globe, which has caused rupture of the suspensory ligament.

The symptoms vary with the extent of the displacement.

In partial dislocation, by using the ophthalmoscope mirror (p. 255), the edge of the lens can be seen as a narrow dark line, slightly curved, crossing the peripheral part of the pupil. The appearance presented by the lens margin is quite unmistakable, and is diagnostic of dislocation of the lens, as, even in extreme dilatation of the pupil, it can never be seen when the lens is *in situ* (*vide* figs. 1 and 2, opposite p. 250). With focal illumination (p. 70) the lens can often be distinguished by a sort of greyish opalescence. When the displacement is such that the edge of the lens extends to the visual field, the symptoms are more numerous and pronounced. The surface of the iris is seen to be irregular, one part being more or less bulged forwards towards the cornea, whilst the remainder is depressed; this depressed portion may also be tremulous when the eye is moved. The patient often complains of monocular diplopia. The visual acuteness is also greatly impaired, the oblique position of the lens having produced irregular astigmatism, which cannot be corrected by spectacles. The power of accommodation is very defective. When the pupil is fully dilated with atropine it is often found that by using a stenopaïc disc the double vision of the eye is dispersed, and that the vision is different when the slit is held in front of the partly dislocated lens from that which is obtained when it is held in front of the part where the lens is absent; in the latter position the eye is found to be highly hypermetropic. On examining the fundus with the ophthalmoscope, either by the direct or indirect method, two images of the optic disc and retinal vessels are seen; this phenomenon, as well as that of the monocular diplopia, is explained by the fact that the rays passing through the lens and those passing outside it have different foci.

In complete dislocation the lens falls either backwards into the vitreous or forwards into the anterior chamber. *In dislocation into the vitreous* this substance, being more liquid than normal, allows the lens to sink to the bottom of the chamber. In this new position it gradually becomes opaque; by focal illumination it may sometimes be seen, and with the ophthalmoscope it appears as a dark floating mass at the bottom of the cavity when the eye is moved. The iris, having lost the support of the lens, falls somewhat backwards, and undergoes a tremulous motion when the eye is moved. The refractive condition of the eye is the same here as it is after cataract extraction.

In dislocation into the anterior chamber the lens in its capsule passes forwards through the pupil and becomes wedged between the iris and the back of the cornea. The appearance presented by the transparent lens in the anterior chamber is that of a drop of oil. The iris is pushed backwards, the pupil somewhat dilated; the refraction is myopic (unless the lens sinks to the bottom of the chamber, when the refraction will be the same as after cataract extraction), and the power of accommodation abolished. The lens may remain for some time in the anterior chamber without becoming opaque, and without causing pain; as a rule, however, it gradually becomes opaque, is attended with pain in and around the eye, and with more or less severe plastic inflammation of the iris.

When dislocation arises from an injury it is frequently accompanied by other lesions, such as rupture of the choroid and of the sclerotic; hæmorrhage may also take place either into the fundus, or into the anterior chamber, or both. Sometimes the lens escapes from the globe altogether through a wound in the sclerotic, and may be discovered beneath the ocular conjunctiva.

Treatment.—1. *When the luxation is partial* the treatment which should be adopted will depend on the amount of displacement and the interference with vision. When vision is not much impaired, and the lens always remains in the same position, no treatment is advisable. These partial luxations, however, often become complete, the lens falling forwards into the anterior chamber or backwards into the vitreous.

When the displaced lens is transparent and its position permanent, but vision is seriously interfered with, some improvement may sometimes be obtained by making an artificial pupil in the direction towards which the lens is displaced; the results, however, are uncertain, and apt to be disappointing.

When the lens is opaque, and in a young subject, an attempt may be made to get rid of it by needling; but in a person over thirty-five it had better be extracted by the method of Graefe (p. 267).

2. *When the dislocation is complete* the lens is useless, and its presence is liable to cause an attack of glaucoma; hence its removal should be undertaken when this can be done without much risk. The removal of the lens is especially indicated in cases in which inflammatory symptoms have already appeared. Unfortunately, the removal of the lens from the vitreous involves so great a loss of that fluid, while the difficulty in extracting the lens is so great, that the operation can hardly be said at present to come within the sphere of practical surgery, and it is better in such a case to enucleate the eye.

When the lens lies in the anterior chamber it may be removed either by needling and solution or by linear extraction; the former methods are only adapted for children. It may be necessary to remove the capsule later; this can be done by seizing it with fine forceps, introduced through a small wound.

In performing linear extraction in these cases, it should be remembered that there is usually no separation between the aqueous and vitreous. One serious difficulty of the operation is the liability of the lens to slip back into the vitreous chamber; hence it is generally desirable to have the pupil contracted by eserine, and to fix the lens, by a needle passed through the cornea, while making the incision.

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE VITREOUS HUMOUR.

THE vitreous body or humour is the transparent jelly-like substance which occupies the whole of that part of the globe which lies behind the lens and its suspensory ligament. The crystalline lens rests in a depression on its anterior surface, and the attachment of the vitreous to the posterior capsule is firmer than elsewhere. Traversing the vitreous, from the optic nerve to the middle of the posterior capsule, is a canal of about 2 mm. diameter—the hyaloid canal. The consistence of the vitreous gradually becomes less firm as age advances; in adult life it is a viscid fluid, somewhat more tenacious than the uncoagulated white of egg. Its index of refraction is 1·337, and therefore identical with that of the aqueous humour.

The vitreous is considered by some authorities (Klein) to be inclosed in a distinct *hyaloid membrane*; but, according to Iwanoff,[1] this is identical with the membrana limitans interna of the retina, and is consequently in relation with the vitreous only so far as the retina extends—that is, as far as the ora serrata. From this point it is continuous with the pars ciliaris retinæ, and here meridionally running fibres are found between it and the vitreous, which form the zonule of Zinn, or suspensory ligament.

Structure.—When hardened in chromic acid, or by freezing, the vitreous shows a tendency to split into concentric layers in its peripheral portions, while the central part shows a less marked radial striation. The lamellæ thus formed do not, however, as far as is known, correspond with any structural arrangement of the solid constituents, although it was formerly thought that such was the case. In the recent state we find a perfectly clear homogeneous matrix containing a few characteristic vitreous cells; these are of a roundish shape, somewhat larger than white blood corpuscles, and contain one, two, or three perfectly transparent vesicles which nearly fill up the cavity. In the peripheral portions of the vitreous, stellate and fusiform cells are also found, which contain similar round transparent vesicles. The outline of the cells can be made more apparent if a portion of recent vitreous is stained in a weak solution of logwood. If examined on the warm stage these vitreous cells are found to undergo amœbiform movements.

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[1] Stricker's *Handbook of Histology*, vol. iii. p. 316. New Syd. Soc.

Muscæ volitantes.—Under ordinary conditions the cells which float in the vitreous do not give rise to any visual sensation, although shadows must be thrown by them upon the retina. This is probably because, in the first place, the mind is accustomed to disregard them; and, secondly, the shadows are much less defined than the images of external objects. If, however, the light enter the eye in an unaccustomed manner, as when a strongly diverging pencil of rays is employed, as is the case in looking through a pin-hole aperture held close to the eye, they become visible, especially if the eye be directed to a large white surface, such as a white cloud, so that there are no other retinal images with which to compare them. Occasionally, owing either to hyperæsthesia of the retina, or to an error of refraction which impairs the definition of the retinal images of all objects, the shadows of the vitreous cells become visible by ordinary light, and then constitute the troublesome symptom known as muscæ volitantes. In this condition the vision is unimpaired, but the patient is often much alarmed by the muscæ, which he looks upon as an indication of impending blindness. In reality they are of no importance whatever, except in so far as they indicate the necessity of examining for any errors of refraction, and improving the general condition.

Opacities in the vitreous may be floating or fixed. The free opacities are usually multiple and of small size, while the fixed, which are less common, are more often single, and assume the form of a membrane. Both forms are usually due to the exudation of inflammatory material, and are generally secondary to disease of the ciliary body or choroid. Cases, however, are frequently seen in which no cause whatever can be found for the opacities.

In order to ascertain if there are any opacities in the vitreous the plane mirror should be employed; if this be held at a distance of 8 or 10 inches from the eye, and the patient moves the latter successively in different directions, any opacities in the vitreous, unless they are extremely minute, will come into view; if not seen by this method the mirror should be held quite close to the eye, and convex lenses of gradually increasing strength be placed behind it, so that different parts of the vitreous are successively brought into view, from the deeper to the more superficial layers. If the examination be conducted in this manner, the presence of vitreous opacities can hardly be overlooked.

Floating opacities.—These are usually of very small size, but occasionally there are mixed with the smaller ones a few of larger size, which are probably formed by their coalescence; the latter always appear black when viewed with the ophthalmoscope, because they intercept the light reflected from the fundus; but if, as occasionally happens, an opacity is sufficiently far forwards to be seen by focal illumination, it appears white or greyish.

The fixed membranous opacities usually present sufficient surface to reflect light thrown into the eye, and so appear white; they are much rarer than the small floating opacities, of which they are probably in many instances a further development. Occasionally vessels can be seen running on them for a short distance.

Opacities of the vitreous are met with in the following conditions. *In myopia of high degree complicated with posterior sclero-choroiditis* we frequently find flocculi floating about in the unnaturally fluid vitreous; they are usually few in number; as a rule they do not interfere greatly with vision, and need not give rise to much anxiety; but should they be numerous and the vision much impaired, a guarded prognosis must be given, as this condition may be the forerunner of detachment of the retina. *In choroiditis* where the pigmentary layer of the retina is thick, the appearance of numerous floating opacities in the vitreous is sometimes the only symptom of the inflammation. In severe choroiditis and cyclitis membranous opacities occasionally form, which completely prevent any reflex being obtained from the fundus. Syphilitic-retino-choroiditis has already been mentioned (p. 138) as being accompanied by fine 'dust-like' opacities in the vitreous.

Degenerative changes.—Abnormal fluidity.—Occasionally, in old persons, the vitreous becomes unnaturally fluid without any other morbid change being apparent in it; unless there are floating opacities also, this condition cannot be diagnosed, but its presence may complicate the operation of cataract extraction by predisposing to an escape of vitreous.

Synchisis scintillans is the term applied to a variety of softening of the vitreous, in which a number of brilliant floating particles are observed. When the ophthalmoscope is used they look like floating spheres or discs of gold moving in all directions. They are extremely numerous in the anterior layers of the vitreous. When the pupil is dilated they can be seen by the oblique focal illumination, as well as by the ophthalmoscope. On careful examination two kinds of particles may be seen; the one, small and white, composed of *tyrosin*; the other, larger and more lustrous, consisting of *cholesterin*. The vitreous is usually rendered so opaque by the existence of these bodies that no detail of the fundus beyond can be obtained. The affection is mostly observed in old people. It may exist for some time without causing great visual trouble.

Foreign bodies occasionally lodge in the vitreous, although more often they are either arrested in the lens, or pass right through the vitreous chamber. The crystalline lens also may be dislocated backwards, and so act as a foreign body. When penetrating the eye from without, the foreign body is usually surrounded in a few hours by cloudy opacity, which may become organised into a cyst-like casing; when thus encysted it may be tolerated for an indefinite period without pain, and even the vision may be to a great extent restored. As a rule, however, no such favourable condition is arrived at, but we find one of the following conditions: (1) Inflammation and abscess of the vitreous; (2) localised inflammation, followed by contraction of the vitreous and detachment of the retina, with final atrophy of the whole globe; (3) acute inflammation of the vitreous may spread to the surrounding parts, causing panophthalmitis; (4) the foreign body may not be fixed or encysted, but may remain for some time visible and movable in the vitreous cavity: and whilst in this condition it may bring on a glaucomatous attack in this eye, or it may produce sympathetic inflammation in that of the opposite side.

The treatment must vary with the position of the wound, and the presence of other complications, such as hæmorrhage, wound of the lens, &c. The danger of sympathetic trouble in the other eye is of such magnitude that it is imperative, either to remove the offending particle, or to enucleate the eye containing it.

The electro-magnet.—When the foreign body consists of a portion of iron or steel, the electro-magnet is frequently found to be of great service in its removal from the vitreous cavity as well as from the crystalline lens, the iris, and other parts of the eye. The practical utility of this instrument has been amply proved during the last few years in the practice of Snell,[1] Hirschberg, McHardy, Bradford, and others. The instrument (fig. 81) consists of a core of soft iron, around which is placed a coil of insulated copper wire; the whole being inclosed in an ebonite case. At one end are two screws to receive battery connections, at the other end the core of the magnet projects in such a manner that either of the needles represented in the figure can be screwed into it. The cases in which the electro-magnet has been employed most successfully are recent accidents, but several are recorded in which a good result was obtained even after a lapse of a considerable interval. In recent

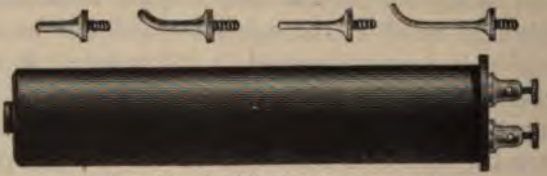

FIG. 81.—Snell's Electro-magnet.[2]

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[1] See *The Electro-magnet in Ophthalmic Surgery*, by Simeon Snell. London, 1883.

[2] Made by Messrs. Cubley and Preston, High Street, Sheffield.

cases it will generally be well to introduce the point of the instrument through the original wound, but it will sometimes be advisable to make a fresh incision, as being more conveniently situated for reaching and removing the fragment; in the older cases a new puncture will be required.

If the particle be visible, either with the ophthalmoscope or by focal illumination, the needle of the electro-magnet may be advanced up to the chip, and the circuit completed when the point of the instrument is in close proximity to it. For diagnostic purposes, also, the electro-magnet is of service. For instance, if a body be detected, but its nature uncertain, and on the approach of the electro-magnet to the outside of the eye, it is noticed to quiver or alter its position, its character is thus rendered evident. The electro-magnet may for this purpose be used without a needle attached, employing in this manner an instrument of considerable power. A delicate suspended magnetic needle also, held over the eye, in some cases in which the presence of a foreign body in the interior of the globe is doubtful, by its movements sometimes affords aid in diagnosis. The contained particle should previously be magnetised by holding an electro-magnet in contact with the globe for a time.

When the object can be seen to occupy the floor of the fundus at some distance behind the lens, an attempt may be made to remove it by an incision through the sclerotic choroid and retina at the lowest part of the globe; after the incision, the foreign body may present in the wound, and can then be removed with forceps. When the particle is in the anterior part of the vitreous, near the lens, the latter had better be removed in the manner recommended for the extraction of cataract (p. 267); the foreign body may then follow the lens in the direction of the wound, and so come within reach of the forceps.

Cysticercus is occasionally found in the vitreous in Germany, but in this country it is almost unknown. It is generally developed beneath the retina, and, after having perforated that membrane, projects into the vitreous. When the media are clear, the parasite can be seen with the ophthalmoscope as a bluish-white semi-transparent cyst; it moves about with the slightest deviation of the eye, and possesses certain undulating movements of its own. Its presence is usually followed by loss of the eye, which becomes disorganised and atrophied.

Pseudo-glioma has been already referred to (p. 202).

Hæmorrhages into the vitreous are usually caused by injury, as a direct blow or wound of the eye, or by concussion propagated through the skull. Occasionally they are idiopathic, and then the extravasation is from the choroidal or retinal vessels.

Symptoms.—The hæmorrhages announce themselves by partial or total darkening of the field of vision; this may come on gradually, or occur suddenly. The extravasations can usually be seen with the ophthalmoscope, and frequently also by the oblique focal illumination.

They often disappear in the course of a few weeks, but more frequently are followed by pigmented floating opacities.

CHAPTER XIII.

ON GLAUCOMA.

GLAUCOMA is the name given to the group of symptoms caused by an excess of intra-ocular tension. It is essentially a disease of advanced life, seventy per cent. of the cases occurring in those who are over fifty. A large proportion of glaucomatous eyes (fifty to seventy-five per cent.) are found to be hypermetropic. When it occurs independently of any other affection of the eye, it is called *primary*; when it is caused by pre-existing eye disease, it is known as *secondary* glaucoma.

Primary glaucoma occurs in every degree of severity, and varies exceedingly in its rate of progress; it may be so acute as to terminate in total blindness in the course of twenty-four hours, or so chronic as to go on for months, and even years, before arriving at this condition. It is, however, always progressive, unless checked by remedial measures.

The symptoms may be divided into:

1. Those which are premonitory.
2. Those which accompany the actual attack.

Premonitory symptoms are seldom wanting, although they are frequently unheeded by the patient until the true onset of the attack. One of the earliest is the rapid impairment of accommodation—rapidly increasing presbyopia. The patient has been unable to read small print (No. 0·5 Snellen) without spectacles of greater strength than should be required at his age (*see* Refraction), and has found it necessary to increase the strength of the latter perhaps several times in the course of a few months. All artificial lights, such as the gas or candle flame, have at times been surrounded by a halo of brightness, or by coloured rainbow-like rings. In some cases the patient complains of cloudiness of sight, which he describes as 'fog,' or 'mist,' before the eyes. This is not always present, but comes and goes at intervals; it is more likely to supervene after prolonged use of the eyes, and is therefore more common at night than in the morning. Occasionally the patient may find himself in total darkness for several seconds from sudden failure of vision.

Of the symptoms which accompany the actual attack, the most important are:

1. Increased intra-ocular tension.
2. Cupping of the optic disc.
3. Limitation of the visual field.
4. Dilatation of the pupil.
5. Pain and other symptoms.

1. *Intraocular tension is always increased*; in fact, this symptom is pathognomonic of the disease. *In order to ascertain the degree of tension*, the patient should be directed to look towards the floor, whilst the head is retained erect; the upper part of the globe is thus brought well forward, so that it can be reached by the tips of the surgeon's two index fingers, and so examined by gentle pressure through the upper lid. Considerable practice in this palpation is necessary before the tactus eruditus can be acquired; the affected eye should be compared with the other, and with the normal eye of another person. The following method of indicating the amount of intra-ocular tension (Bowman) is now almost universally adopted:

T*n*, normal tension.
T + ? tension probably increased.
T + 1 tension perceptibly increased.
T + 2 „ increased, but the globe can be dimpled.
T + 3 „ increased so much that the globe cannot be dimpled (stony hardness).
T − ? „ probably diminished.
T − 1 „ certainly diminished.
T − 2 „ much diminished.
T − 3 „ very much diminished (globe flaccid).

The increase of tension is almost in direct proportion to the severity of the disease; in the most acute cases it is usually

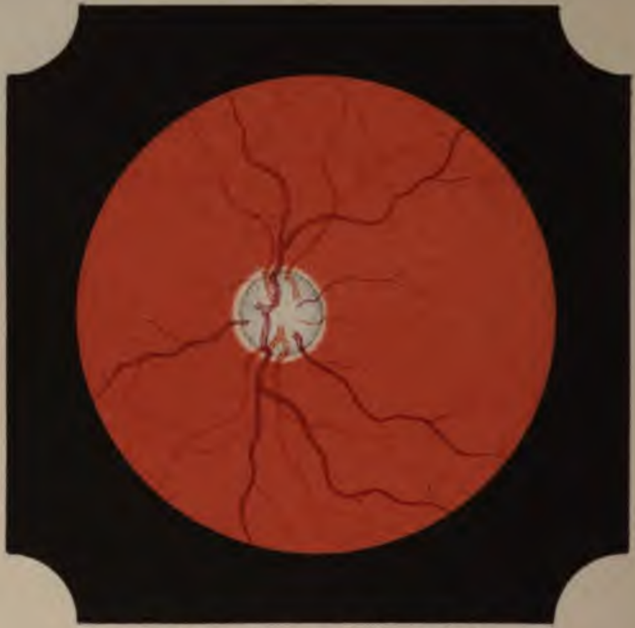

Fig. 1. Slight Cupping of Optic Disk.

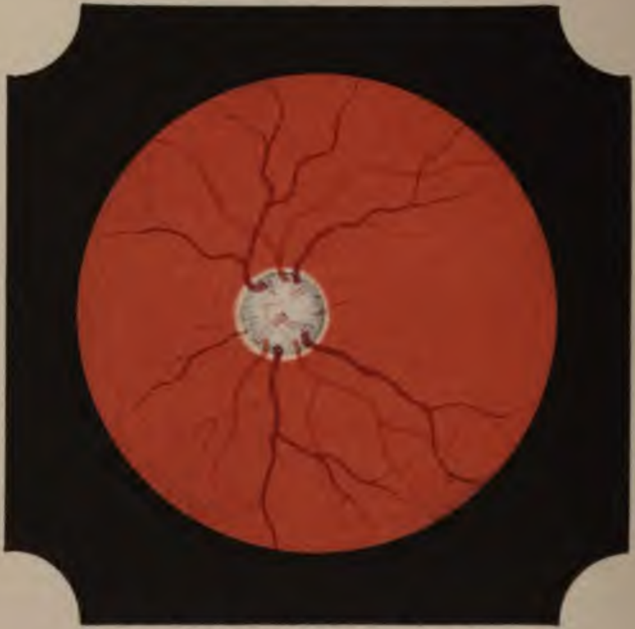

Fig. 2. Deep Glaucoma Cupping.

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very high (T = +2 or +3); in the subacute forms it is less increased (T = +1 or + 2); and in the chronic varieties, it may be only slightly augmented (T = + ? + 1 or +2).

2. *Cupping of the optic disc* is not present in the earlier stage of glaucoma, but is always found where increased intraocular tension has existed for some time. The depth of the cup is very variable; it is more marked in persons under fifty than in those above that age. Its floor presents a bluish-white appearance; this is most pronounced in advanced cases.

The cupping can be best seen by the direct method of ophthalmoscopic examination; but atropine must on no account be used to dilate the pupil, as this invariably aggravates the symptoms. Examined in this way the cupped disc presents the appearance represented in figs. 1 and 2, on the opposite page; they are taken from two cases of chronic primary glaucoma, fig. 1 being moderately, and fig. 2 considerably advanced. In both cases it will be seen that the vessels situated at the edges of the disc, which is now in focus, are quite clear, and appear to make a distinct curve on to the retina, whilst those situated within the area of the disc are somewhat blurred and indistinct; in order to bring the latter into view, it will be necessary to interpose one of the concave lenses of the ophthalmoscope, the strength of the lens thus required to bring the lamina cribrosa into focus being proportionate to the depth of the cup. In fact we have only to allow 0·3 mm. for each dioptre of the lens used, in order to obtain an approximate estimate of this. Thus, suppose the edge of the disc and the vessels there to be in focus without any lens being interposed between the two eyes, and that a lens of 4 D is required to bring the lamina cribrosa into focus, then ($0{\cdot}3 \times 4 = 1{\cdot}2$) the approximate depth of the cup will be 1·2 mm. If the head be moved from side to side, the bottom of the cup being farther away appears to move in the same direction as the observer's head; this parallax or change in the relative positions of the floor and edge of the cup is quite diagnostic.

The parallax can also be seen by the *indirect method*; in this case, if the lens which is used by the observer be moved through a small space in front of the eye, the images of the vessels at the edge of the cup, and those of the vessels at the bottom of the cup, appear to change their relative positions; those of the former seem to move more quickly than those of the latter. This phenomenon is easily explained. In fig. 82, let O be the position of the vessel at the edge of the disc, and *o* that of a vessel at its bottom. Let I and *i* be the respective images of these vessels. Then the distance L I is greater than L *i*. If the lens be moved from L to L′, the image I′, being farther from the centre L′ than the image *i*′, will have to describe a greater space in the same time, and so I′ will be displaced more quickly than *i*′.

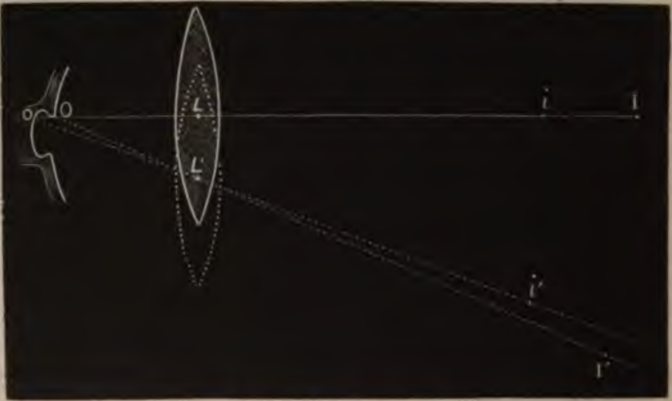

FIG. 82.—Optical Parallax.

It is important to distinguish between the cupping of the optic disc which is due to increased intra-ocular pressure, and the physiological cupping already described in p. 167. By comparing fig. 1, opposite p. 176, with figs. 1 and 2, opposite p. 294, it will be seen that the physiological excavation only occupies a part of the area of the disc, whilst in glaucoma the whole disc is depressed.

Pulsation of the veins of the optic disc is always produced by increased tension, but, as it is very frequently present in healthy eyes, it is of little value as a symptom unless it can be proved that it did not previously exist. *Arterial pulsation* at the optic disc is occasionally seen, and when present is an important diagnostic sign. It is 'the expression of the contention between the pressures in the arteries and in the ocular chambers, and the alternate supremacy of each' (Priestley Smith). With the exceptions mentioned on p. 175, it is always due to increased intra-ocular tension or to aortic regurgitation. It may be present before the onset of an acute attack, and at any stage in the course of chronic glaucoma.

3. *Contraction of the field of vision* is always present in glaucoma. The field for white first commences to contract on the inner part, and then over the upper and lower portions of the periphery; from these inner, upper, and lower portions the obliteration gradually proceeds towards the point of fixation, which is ultimately destroyed, leaving only a contracted space in the outer part of the field in which vision still remains, although its acuity is necessarily much diminished.

It is an interesting fact, and one which is almost peculiar to glaucoma, that the limits of vision for colours follow the same kind of contraction as those for white. (*See* Perimetry.) Fig. 1, opposite p. 222, is a chart showing the visual field for white, blue, red, and green respectively, which was taken from a case of moderately advanced primary glaucoma. On comparing this with the normal visual field (fig. 1, opposite p. 216) it will be seen that all the areas for colours are contracted almost concentrically with that for white. So long as the central part of the field of vision, that is, the part which corresponds to the yellow spot region of the retina, is not encroached upon, the patient may enjoy very good central vision both for white and for colours; he will, however, be unable to perceive other objects than those towards which his eye is directed; his vision is similar to that of a person looking through a tube. After the obliteration has passed the central region the vision becomes very defective, and finally is lost altogether.

4. *Dilatation of the pupil.*—In the *early stage* of primary glaucoma the pupil is always somewhat dilated; it is usually oval, and is moderately active. As the disease advances, the dilatation becomes greater, the activity is lost, the periphery of the iris adheres to the back of the cornea near the circumference of the latter. In very advanced cases the edge of the pupil forsakes its normal position against the capsule of the lens and becomes everted (ectropion iridis), so that a ring of brown pigment (uvea) is now seen to encircle the pupil in

front. Finally, the iris becomes reduced to a narrow band of atrophied tissue.

5. Other important symptoms present themselves in glaucoma, but are less constant than those just mentioned.

Pain is sometimes a premonitory symptom. The actual onset of acute glaucoma is nearly always marked by intense pain in the eye and in surrounding parts, as the side of the nose, the temple, and the back of the head. The sudden appearance and extreme violence of the pain are important features in acute cases. Similar but less severe pain is sometimes present in subacute glaucoma, and occasionally in the chronic forms; but the majority of the last are free from this symptom.

Inflammatory symptoms are always present in the acute and subacute forms, but are absent in chronic glaucoma. In the most acute cases there is intense congestion of the circumcorneal zone of vessels, and often of the whole conjunctiva; there may be considerable chemosis of the ocular conjunctiva, and œdema of the eyelids. The iris loses its brilliancy, the aqueous and vitreous humours become turbid, and the cornea may be steamy. In subacute cases there is dusky redness of the vessels in the circumcorneal zone.

Shallowness of the anterior chamber is frequently found in cases of increased tension, but it is not a constant symptom; the iris appears to be pushed forwards by advancement of the lens. In acute and subacute cases this forward bulging of the iris and lens is sometimes so pronounced that these structures appear to be in actual contact with the back of the cornea.

Impaired sensation of the cornea is a common symptom. When the tension is greatly increased, and especially where it has been of long duration, the cornea may be touched without exciting reflex contraction of the orbicularis, and without discomfort to the patient.

Opacities of the media are nearly always present in the acute and subacute, but are rare in the chronic forms of glaucoma. The cornea often becomes dull and 'steamy' in appearance; the aqueous is turbid, and may contain small hæmorrhages; the vitreous frequently presents floating opacities. In old standing cases the lens becomes opaque.

From what has been said of the symptoms of primary glaucoma it will be evident that an extensive range of cases is met with, and that, according to the nature of their prominent symptoms, they may be conveniently divided into three or four groups—viz. *the acute*, *the subacute*, *the chronic*, and *the hæmorrhagic*. The first three differ rather in degree than in kind, for intermediate forms occur, and a case belonging to one group may at any time assume the characters of the other. *The hæmorrhagic*, however, presents marked differences in its cause, and in the effect of treatment.

In acute cases the actual attack is generally ushered in by severe pain in and around the eye, often extending over the whole side of the head; vomiting is not unfrequently present, and this, with the pain in the head, may cause the local trouble to be overlooked. The conjunctiva is usually intensely injected and covered by large tortuous veins. The pupil is inactive, semidilated, and oval. The cornea and media are always turbid; so that the iris looks muddy and the fundus cannot be seen. Tension is greatly increased, and vision becomes rapidly impaired, so that in the worst cases (*glaucoma fulminans*) total blindness may ensue in twenty-four hours or less.

The subacute cases resemble in many respects those just described, but the premonitory symptoms extend over a longer time, and those which mark the actual onset of the attack are less severe. The injection of the conjunctiva in this case is often confined to the circumcorneal zone, a fact which, combined with the immobility of the pupil, not unfrequently leads to a diagnosis of *iritis*—a mistake which may have most disastrous consequences, for, while atropine does good in iritis, it invariably does harm in glaucoma.

Chronic glaucoma differs from the preceding forms in the absence of conjunctival injection, and of opacities in the media. The absence of inflammatory symptoms led to these cases being formerly classed as *simple* or *non-inflammatory glaucoma*, but the distinction is probably not a sound one. Cases of chronic glaucoma often extend over many years, there being very slight increase of tension, but progressive failure of vision, with contraction of the visual field, cupping of the optic nerve, and atrophy of its fibres.

Hæmorrhagic glaucoma is characterised by hæmorrhages from the retinal vessels in addition to the other symptoms of glaucoma.

When the media will allow of ophthalmoscopic examination, it is found that these hæmorrhages do not materially differ from those of other diseases; they appear in dark red somewhat elongated patches, running in the direction of the retinal vessels, which they sometimes render obscure; the veins appear dilated and tortuous, the arteries are of more normal calibre; the optic disc is hazy and congested.

When retinal hæmorrhages exist, the other symptoms of glaucoma are less evident than in ordinary cases.

The tension is sometimes only slightly augmented. The visual field does not present the typical concentric limitation, but contains various irregular blind spots (scotomata) corresponding to the positions of the blood-extravasations; and should these be situated near the yellow spot region, the central vision will be destroyed. Sooner or later, however, all doubt as to the nature of the case is dispelled by the onset of markedly increased tension, and of violent pains in and around the eye. Any sudden diminution of tension, such as takes place in performing an iridectomy, is liable to be followed by fresh hæmorrhage.

Primary glaucoma usually attacks both eyes, but rarely at the same time; the affection of the second eye may set in at any time from a few hours to several years after the first.

Pathology.—As we have already seen (p. 123), the intraocular fluid is mainly secreted by the ciliary processes, although a small portion may be given off by the iris. Part of this fluid passes directly into the aqueous chamber; another portion passes into the vitreous chamber, and from the vitreous chamber through the suspensory ligament into the posterior part of the aqueous chamber. *The aqueous humour* thus formed flows forward from behind the iris, mainly through the aperture of the pupil, but a portion of it passes through the tissues at the periphery of the iris; having thus reached the anterior part of the aqueous chamber, it flows between the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum at the angle of the anterior chamber (iritic angle) and reaches the canal of Schlemm; from this it passes into the venous plexus, situated in the vicinity of the canal; it either enters directly into these veins by means of valvular apertures, and so enters the blood current, or it passes into the perivascular lymph spaces surrounding the veins, and is carried by these to the capsule of Tenon. The increased tension of glaucoma is undoubtedly due to an excess of this fluid within the globe, but ophthalmologists are somewhat at variance as to the exact cause of this phenomenon.

Priestley Smith believes[1] that the comparatively large size of the lens in advanced life (see p. 246) accounts for the special liability of elderly people to primary glaucoma. He found by experiment that if the vitreous chamber be overfilled with fluid, so that the lens and suspensory ligament move slightly forwards, the ciliary processes are pressed against the base of the iris, and this, in turn, against the cornea, so that the filtration channels at the angle of the anterior chamber are shut up in a manner closely resembling what is found in the early stage of primary glaucoma. He is of opinion that primary glaucoma is the consequence of a shutting up of the angle of the anterior chamber, arising precisely in this way. In the normal state of the eye the waste fluid of the vitreous body passes forwards through the suspensory ligament to mingle with the aqueous fluid; but in glaucoma this escape of the vitreous fluid appears to be checked by closing up the space between the ciliary body and the lens, and so the vitreous chamber gets over-filled. The *immediate* cause of the obstruction appears in most cases to be a swelling up of the ciliary processes, but it is obvious that the large size of the senile lens will act as a *predisposing* cause of glaucoma wherever such swelling occurs. This opinion as to the participation of the lens is supported by the fact that swelling of the lens as the result of injury is very apt to induce glaucoma in elderly people, in whom the lens is already of large size, and less so in young people, in whom it is small. It is, however, insufficient to account for certain forms of glaucoma, such as sometimes occur in eyes from which the lens has been removed, and in eyes where the lens has been dislocated backwards.

Dr. Brailey[2] believes glaucoma to be primarily due to a vascular change; he considers that before the development of the increased tension there is always inflammation of the ciliary body, iris, and optic nerve; that this is most pronounced in the ciliary body, especially in and around its muscular fibres; that the inflamed condition gives rise in the first instance to hypersecretion of fluid from the ciliary body and iris; that the enlargement of the ciliary folds, due to their vascular turgescence, causes the advancement of the periphery of the iris towards the cornea, by which the outflow of fluid from the globe through the angle of the aqueous chamber and the canal of Schlemm is impeded.

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[1] *Glaucoma*. London, 1879.

[2] *Lond. Oph. Hosp. Reports*, vol. x. part ii.

Dr. Weber of Darmstadt[1] does not believe in the theory of hypersecretion of fluid, but in a diminished outflow. He does not consider that the hindrance to the outflow is limited to the iritic angle of the anterior chamber, but that impediments may exist in the vitreous, in the suspensory ligament, the anterior chamber, the canal of Schlemm, or in the superficial layers of the sclerotic. He also is of opinion that a higher 'condition of albuminosity' of the intraocular fluid may tend to prevent its outflow.

Whatever may be the *initial cause* of primary glaucoma, whether from (i.) hypersecretion of the inflamed ciliary body, (ii.) impeded outflow caused by pressure of the enlarged ciliary body upon the periphery of iris, (iii.) impeded outflow from the vitreous chamber by enlargement of the lens, or from all these causes combined, there are certain pathological conditions which are pretty constantly found in glaucomatous eyes. These will now be considered.

The ciliary body.—In the early stage there is always inflammation of the ciliary muscle, and enlargement of the ciliary folds (cyclitis). This condition of capillary distension of the ciliary body is believed by Dr. Brailey to cause increased secretion, which may of itself be sufficient to cause glaucomatous tension. Its appearance at this early stage is very similar to that of serous iritis (see fig. 1, opposite p. 127). It differs from that affection in becoming rapidly atrophic, the atrophy being accompanied by great dilatation of the blood-vessels. *In the advanced stage* of primary glaucoma the ciliary body is always found to be atrophied (see figs. 1, 2, and 3, on the opposite

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[1] *Trans. Int. Med. Congress*, vol. iii. 1881.

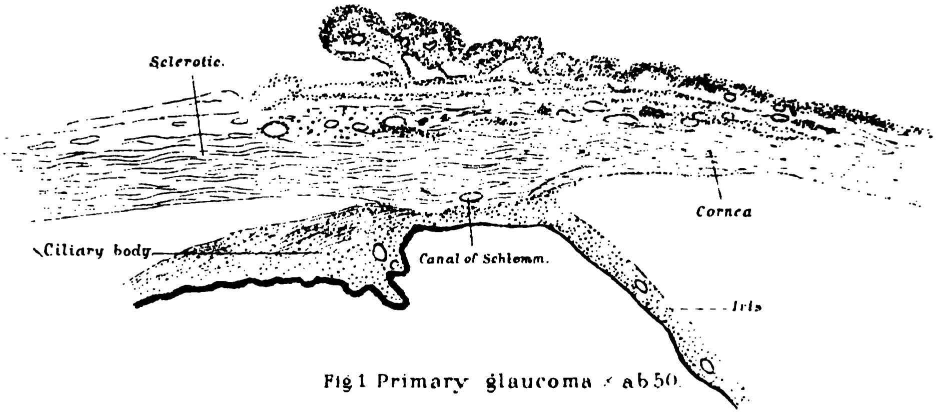

Fig 1 Primary glaucoma × ab 50.

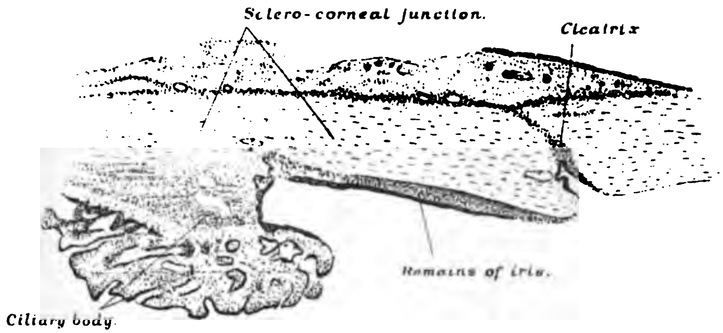

Fig 2 Upper ciliary region × ab. 50.

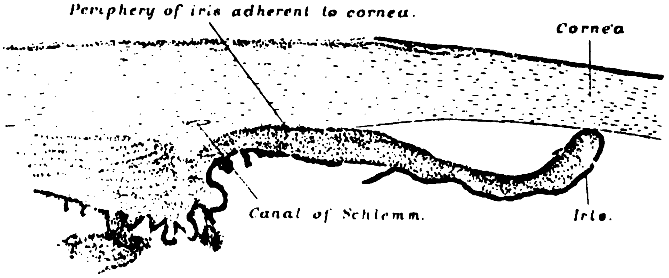

Fig. 3. Lower ciliary region × ab 50.

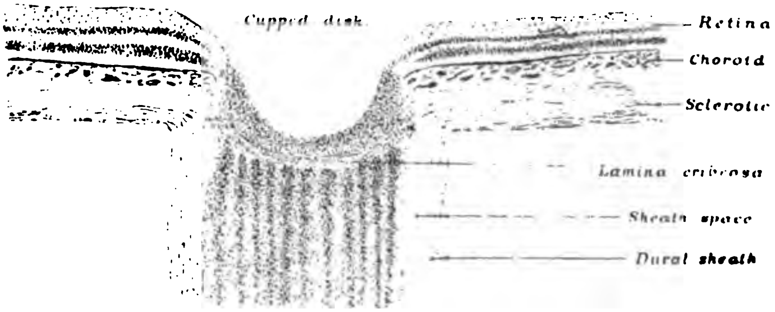

Fig. 4 Optic disk region × ab 50

ADVANCED PRIMARY GLAUCOMA.

page); not only the muscle but the ciliary folds are found to be shrunken and the vessels widely dilated. In old people this atrophy is accompanied by the formation of dense connective tissue, whilst in the more rare attacks in young people the part becomes stretched, owing to the elasticity of the tissues, thus forming a general bulging of the anterior part of the eye, and giving rise to the condition known as *buphthalmos.*

The iris is also slightly inflamed, and the pupil somewhat dilated and sluggish in the *early stage.* Its periphery is approximated to the back of the cornea at the iritic angle so as to diminish the size of that outlet; the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum as they pass from Descemet's membrane to the base of the iris are found to be swollen by hypernucleation of their epithelioid covering, and, by being thus increased in calibre, the spaces between them (spaces of Fontana) are considerably diminished, thus forming a further obstruction to the outflow of the fluid from the anterior chamber to the canal of Schlemm. In the *advanced stage* the periphery of the iris is found to be in actual contact with the cornea, and adherent to it (see figs. 1, 2, and 3, on the opposite page), so that the iritic angle is more or less completely blocked. Under these circumstances the edges of the pupil are sometimes everted, as in fig. 3, and the pupillary margin of the iris no longer rests upon the capsule of the lens. Finally, the iris may become atrophied and reduced to a mere band of slate-coloured tissue around the widely dilated pupil.

The suspensory ligament is put upon the stretch by the accumulated intraocular fluid. This is probably an important factor in the impairment of accommodation which is always present in glaucoma.

The optic nerve is always found to be somewhat inflamed in the very early stage (Brailey). In the *advanced stages* there are always changes in this structure. On transverse section the nerve-fibres are found to be shrunken, and the intervening connective tissue considerably hypertrophied. The same hypertrophy is found to affect the pial sheath of the optic nerve and the lamina cribrosa. This latter structure, which forms the floor of the optic disc, is the weakest part of the fibrous capsule of the globe, and is therefore the first to yield to glaucomatous tension. *In cupping of the optic disc* the fibres of the lamina are pushed backwards in the manner shown in fig. 4, opposite p. 303, and the nerve-fibres as they radiate towards the retina are pressed back with it. The depth of the cup depends chiefly upon the amount and duration of increased tension and the age of the patient. In a person of middle age, where the tension has been considerable and of long standing, the cup is generally deep with overhanging edges, but in an older person (over sixty) it is less deep, owing to the unyielding nature of the fibrous tissue.

The choroid.—It was formerly considered (Graefe) that choroiditis serosa was one of the chief causes of glaucoma, but it is found that this structure is not affected in the early stage, and only evinces a tendency to atrophy in the later period of glaucoma, when the optic disc is often seen surrounded by a ring of choroidal atrophy.

The retina suffers from prolonged pressure in several ways. In the first place, the compression of so delicate a structure is alone sufficient to impair its function; then we have seen that the fibres of the optic nerve are compressed and atrophied at or near the optic disc; finally, the flow of arterial blood to the retina is impeded, and the efflux of venous blood is retarded. The want of arterial blood is probably the cause of the characteristic limitation of the visual field; the course of the vessels to the periphery being longer, and so having greater resistance to overcome than those at the centre. The vessels of the retina are frequently found to be degenerated. The walls of the arteries are often thick, and present a hyaline appearance; sometimes aneurysmal dilatations may be seen, and hæmorrhages are frequently found.

Treatment.—In the year 1856 Alfred Graefe, having discovered that *iridectomy* was effectual in reducing intraocular tension, employed this operation in the treatment of glaucoma; his attempts in this direction were followed by the most brilliant success. The operation of iridectomy has been, and is almost universally adopted for this disease, and is the means of rescuing hundreds of persons from blindness every year.

Before the time of Graefe's discovery, glaucoma held a prominent place in the category of incurable diseases. Since the introduction of iridectomy other operative measures, as sclerotomy and paracentesis of the vitreous and anterior chambers, have been introduced, but up to the present time they have in no way proved themselves superior to the original operation, although in certain cases their adoption may be advisable.

Of late years also the local action of certain myotic drugs, such as the extract of calabar bean, eserine, and pilocarpine, has been found effectual in reducing and, in a few cases, even abolishing the excess of tension in glaucomatous eyes.

During the premonitory stage, which is probably the expression of successive transient attacks of increased tension, recurring after variable intervals of time, eserine (F. 31) may be employed with great benefit.

In acute and subacute cases, a large iridectomy (see p. 155) in the upward direction should be immediately performed. The omission or postponement of this, or an equivalent operation, is liable to be attended with the most disastrous consequences; by allowing the continuance of the great intraocular pressure which accompanies these affections, the function of the retina will become permanently deteriorated, if not absolutely destroyed. On the other hand, the performance of the operation is usually attended, not only with a cessation of the symptoms and progress of the disease, but with marked improvement of the vision; an eye thus affected may have been recently deprived of all useful vision, and even, it has been said, for a short time, of perception of light, and may yet recover very good sight from a prompt and well-performed iridectomy. Whatever defect of vision may have existed in the eye before the operation, the after improvement will almost entirely depend upon the previous duration of the pressure.

In the event of unavoidable delay, from want of proper instruments, objections on the part of the patient, or from other causes, a solution of *eserine* (F. 31) should be dropped into the palpebral aperture every hour; this may to some extent reduce the intraocular pressure, and so stave off its pernicious effects until the operation can be performed. In fact, it is well in all cases to commence the use of eserine as soon as possible after the diagnosis is completed, and to continue its use both before and after any operation that may be performed.

In chronic glaucoma, the improvement produced by iridectomy and the use of eserine or other myotics, is not so marked as in the cases just mentioned. In the majority of cases the operation is sufficient to arrest the progress of the disease, but it seldom restores much of the vision that has been lost by continued pressure. The use of *eserine* alone is generally helpful in reducing tension, which in some cases will almost entirely disappear after a few days' use of that drug. The general experience, however, is that the relief thus obtained is not permanent; the tension returns soon after, or even before, the discontinuance of the drug with the effect of gradual deterioration and final loss of vision.

In a small proportion of cases, mostly of the chronic kind, iridectomy is not followed by improvement; the tension remains elevated, and the vision continues to decrease. In a few cases of the same class this operation is succeeded by exaggeration of the symptoms; the vision rapidly fails, and it may be followed by shrinking of the globe.

There are no definite signs by which we are able to foretell these conditions; it is, therefore, well to give a guarded prognosis in all cases, and to forewarn the patient of this possible termination.

In hæmorrhagic glaucoma, when the condition of the media will admit of the detection of hæmorrhages in the retina, the vitreous, or the anterior chamber, iridectomy is contraindicated. Owing to the diseased condition of the blood-vessels, an iridectomy is certain to aggravate the mischief, the sudden lowering of the intraocular pressure causing further hæmorrhage. The operation of sclerotomy, in which the diminution of tension is more gradual, has not so far been followed by these untoward results.

In very old people the probable duration of life must be considered; where the disease is of the mild and chronic form the *central* vision may continue fairly good until the end.

In advanced disease, where the vision is perhaps totally gone from one eye, and greatly impaired in the other, the iris is usually atrophied, and sclerotomy would be more easily performed than iridectomy, although but little benefit, beyond the relief of tension and consequent cessation of pain, could be expected.

Sclerotomy has of late years been extensively tried as a substitute for iridectomy in glaucoma; this is owing to the widespread conviction that the latter operation owes its efficacy to the incision in the sclerotic rather than to the excision of a portion of the iris. Various methods of performing sclerotomy are in use; the following plan, as recommended by De Wecker, is the one I usually adopt.

Operation.—A Graefe's linear knife (fig. 42, p. 156), or one of De Wecker's sclerotomes, is introduced into the sclerotic at 1 to 2 mm. from the margin of the cornea, in the same way as for iridectomy in the extraction of cataract (see p. 270), except that the incision is slightly more posterior than in the iridectomy; its point is carried across the anterior chamber in front of the iris, and the counter-puncture made in the opposite corresponding position. The knife is now carried upwards by a sawing movement until its edge is just covered by the sclero-corneal junction, that is, until its edge forms a tangent with the highest point of the cornea; the incision is then stopped without cutting through the remaining bridge of sclerotic above, and the knife is slowly withdrawn. Great care should be taken not to wound the iris, also to prevent a sudden rush of the aqueous from the wound, whereby the iris might be caused to protrude, and so become entangled in the wound.

By sclerotomy performed in this manner all the tissues at the iritic angle are divided, except the bridge of sclerotic tissue which is left. The operation is 'subconjunctival.' The line of incision which it is desirable to obtain in sclerotomy is shown in fig. 83, where it is seen to be somewhat posterior to that of

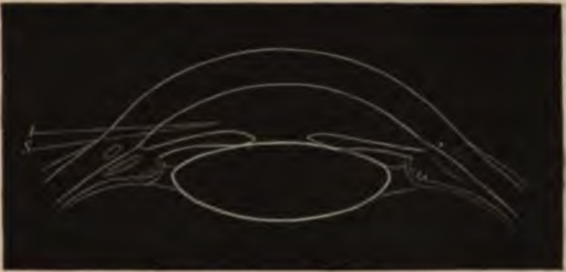

FIG. 83.—Lines of Incision.
I, in iridectomy; *S*, in sclerotomy.

iridectomy. It is evident that in this operation, if the incision is too far removed from the cornea, there is danger of wounding the ciliary body, and consequent hæmorrhage into the vitreous chamber, also of possible plastic cyclitis, and consequent sympathetic inflammation in the other eye.

With the view of preventing the prolapse of the iris through the wound in the sclerotic, as well as for the continued reduction of tension, the use of eserine (F. 31) is advisable both before and after the operation.

Sclerotomy, although generally admitted to be theoretically equivalent to iridectomy, has not yet gained the universal confidence of ophthalmic surgeons. Speaking on this subject in 1878, De Wecker,[1] one of the strongest supporters of sclerotomy, says: 'Although I shall, probably, during the whole course of my career continue to give preference to excision of the iris as being the surest operation against glaucoma, I hold the conviction that our progressive science will substitute for it a simpler and more logical proceeding. . . . Under two circumstances only do I strongly recommend you to renounce iridectomy and to resort to my operative procedure; first, when you recognise that you are dealing with hæmorrhagic glaucoma, for here the double section with the narrow sclerotome (2 mm.) enables you to avoid the danger of the section for iridectomy; and secondly, in cases of absolute glaucoma: in these sclerotomy ought always to be preferred to iridectomy, the operation being undertaken only with the object of freeing the patient from severe pain.'

Paracentesis of the vitreous chamber is practised by **Cowell** for the relief of certain forms of chronic and secondary glaucoma; he plunges the point of a Beer's cataract knife to the extent of 5 mm. through the conjunctiva, sclerotic, choroid, and retina, as near as possible to the space between the insertions of the superior and external recti. The incision is sometimes attended with excellent results, not only in relieving tension, but in the improvement of vision, &c.

When an eye is lost from glaucoma and continues to be painful after sclerotomy or any other operation, excision of the globe is the only remedy.

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[1] *Thérapeutique Oculaire*, part i. p. 378. 1878.

Secondary glaucoma signifies a condition of increased intra-ocular tension, occurring as a complication of some other affection of the eye. It is most common amongst those maladies which interfere with the normal movements and position of the iris.

Perforating ulcer of the cornea with protrusion of the iris is a common example of this. The whole or part of the pupillary edge of the iris becomes entangled in the wound, where it appears as a black point; if this be carefully examined, the protruding portion of the iris will be found to act as a filter, and for a certain period to give rise to a constant leakage; finally, this black point becomes covered over by a layer of lymph which cicatrises and the leak is closed. Increased tension is the immediate result; the fluid can no longer pass through the cicatrix; the periphery of the iris is jammed against the cornea by the fluid pressure behind it, and so the entrance to the canal of Schlemm is closed. Unless the tension is relieved by iridectomy, or an equivalent operation, the iris becomes atrophied and adherent to the cornea; anterior staphyloma or bulging of the whole anterior part of the eye may occur; the iris is greatly stretched, and tension is made upon the ciliary processes; the lens is carried forward as well as the iris; the zonula is stretched, and so traction is made upon the pars ciliaris retinæ. The vitreous undergoes degeneration, and becomes more fluid than normal.

Complete posterior synechia is another common cause of secondary glaucoma; the pupil being bound to the anterior capsule of the lens, the passage of fluid forwards through this is arrested; pressure is thus made upon the iris from behind, and its peripheral portion is bulged forwards, thus closing the angle of the anterior chamber, while the attachment of its pupillary edge to the lens gives a *funnel-shaped* appearance to the pupil.

Wound of the lens, as in the needle operation or by accident, often gives rise to increased tension, probably by causing swelling of the lens structure within its capsule. The remains of soft lens-matter after cataract extraction is also a cause of increased tension.

Dislocation of the lens either forwards or backwards, and partial dislocation of the lens, sometimes give rise to glaucoma.

Foreign bodies in the globe may cause glaucomatous tension; this, again, is probably generally by wound of the lens and iris or ciliary body.

Sarcoma of the choroid and *glioma of the retina* are usually attended at some period of their history by a rise of tension.

Symptoms.—Increased tension is the chief sign of secondary glaucoma. The other symptoms of contracted field, halos, impaired visual acuity, and changes in the refractive condition, are seldom to be made out on account of the lesions of the cornea, iris, lens, &c.

The treatment of secondary glaucoma must vary with the cause. In the case of a dislocated lens being the cause of the trouble, an attempt should be made to remove it. (See p. 285.) Where the iris is adherent, either anteriorly or posteriorly, iridectomy (see p. 155) should be performed. When the eye is quite blind and the media opaque, if it is painful, and especially if the other eye remains unaffected, it probably contains a tumour, and should therefore be excised.

The after treatment of iridectomy or sclerotomy for glaucoma is simple enough. After iridectomy, the eyelids are closed and covered with a piece of wet lint and a light bandage. After sclerotomy, the bandage is generally dispensed with altogether, and the eyes shaded from the light. On the second or third day the use of eserine (F. 31) should be resumed. The general health should be supported by tonics; any excess in diet, and especially in alcoholic drinks, being avoided. Any constitutional dyscrasia, as gout or rheumatism, should be combated by suitable remedies. For the first few days the patient had better be kept in bed, and should not leave the darkened room for at least a week. After that time he should wear spectacles of the darkest neutral tint; he should avoid over-use of the eyes, and be as far as possible removed from over-work and worry.

CHAPTER XIV.

ERRORS OF REFRACTION.

By W. Adams Frost, F.R.C.S. Eng.; and Henry Juler, F.R.C.S. Eng.

I. OPTICAL PRINCIPLES.—II. THE EYE CONSIDERED AS AN OPTICAL INSTRUMENT.—III. ERRORS OF REFRACTION.—IV. LENSES.—THE OPHTHALMOSCOPE.—V. METHODS OF ESTIMATING REFRACTION.—VI. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Section I.—Optical Principles.

From every point on the surface of an illuminated or luminous object light is given off in every direction in a straight line. Hence the light from any such point may be considered, and represented diagrammatically, as fine radiating lines; such imaginary lines are called *rays*. Adjacent rays coming from the same point constitute a *pencil* of light. Rays of light therefore coming from any point must necessarily be *divergent*: the greater, however, the distance of the source of the light, the more nearly will they approach to parallelism. Thus, in the case of rays from the sun, it is impossible by the most accurate measurement to demonstrate that they are not parallel. Here we shall be chiefly concerned with rays which enter the eye through the pupil, and of these we may, for all practical purposes, consider as parallel those which come from a point distant not less than six metres (20 feet).

As long as a ray travels in the same medium it continues its original direction; if it passes into a medium of different density it changes its direction at the surface which separates the two media. The direction and amount of the change depend on two factors—the difference in the refracting power of the two media, and the form of the surface of separation. As a rule, the refracting power of a medium is in proportion to its density; thus glass is more refracting than water, and water than air, while air, as compared with vacuum, has a definite power of refraction. The following are the laws of refraction: (1) *A ray in passing from a less into a more refracting medium is refracted towards the normal.* (2) *In passing from a more into a less refracting medium a ray is refracted away from the normal.* A ray, whose course coincides with the normal, undergoes no change of direction. The normal, in the case of a plane surface, is the perpendicular to the surface drawn from the point of contact of the ray, in the case of a spherical surface it is identical with the radius of curvature.

It is evident that if a ray pass right through the more refracting medium into the same medium which it traversed before, it will be refracted at the surfaces both of entry and of exit.

We will consider first the case of a ray passing through a piece of glass whose surfaces are parallel, as in an ordinary plate-glass window. Let $a\,b$ (fig. 84) be such a ray passing through n'; then at h it is refracted towards the perpendicular

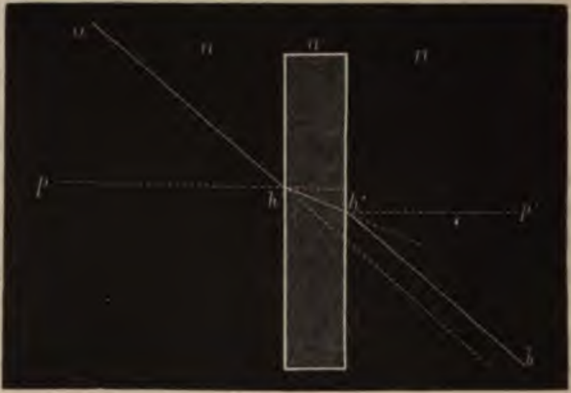

FIG. 84.

$p\,h$, and at h' it is again refracted away from the perpendicular $p'\,h'$ to the same extent—i.e. the amount of refraction is the same, but its direction is opposite to that which it underwent on entering the glass—hence its ultimate direction is parallel to that which it originally had, and it has merely undergone *parallel displacement.* The amount of this displacement obviously depends on the obliquity with which the ray strikes the glass, and on the thickness of the latter. In all the cases with which we shall be concerned the parallel displacement may be disregarded, and rays which pass through a body whose surfaces are parallel or concentric may be considered to be unchanged in their course, provided that the media on each side of the body have the same power of refraction.

If, instead of being parallel, the surfaces of the glass converge as in a prism (fig. 85), the prolongations of the normals, *p h* and *p′ h′*, are no longer parallel, but are directed towards the base of the prism; hence the ray *a b*, following the laws of refraction, will also be refracted towards the base both on entering and leaving the glass. Therefore, *rays passing through a prism are refracted towards its base.*

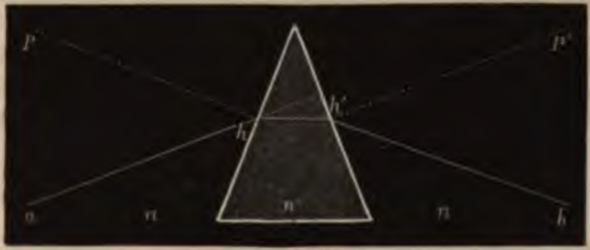

FIG. 85.

By refraction at a plane surface the *actual* direction of rays is changed, but not their *relative* direction; thus rays which were parallel or divergent before remain parallel or divergent after refraction. This results from the fact that the normals to a plane surface are parallel to each other.

If the separating surface is curved (fig. 86), the normals are no longer parallel, but, in the case of a spherical surface, meet at the centre of curvature; hence rays by refraction at such a surface are rendered more or less divergent, according as they are made to approach or recede from the normals.

We will consider first refraction at a single spherical surface.

Let C D (fig. 86) be a portion of such a surface separating the media *n* and *n′*, of which *n′* is the more refracting, and let *k* be its centre of curvature. Then lines drawn from *k* to any points in C D will constitute normals to the surface C D, and, since rays which coincide with the normal are unrefracted, any ray which is directed to k is unrefracted—hence k is called the *optical centre*—(it coincides in this case with the centre of curvature). A line, A B, joining the centre of C D (h) with k, is called the *principal axis* of the surface; all other rays which pass through k are called *secondary axes*.

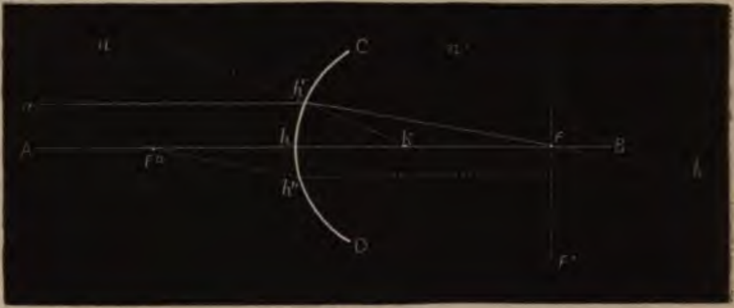

FIG. 86.

Let $a\,h'$ be a ray parallel in n to the principal axis A B. Draw the normal $h'\,k$; then at the point h' the ray $a\,h'$ will be refracted towards $h'\,k$, and would intersect the principal axis A B at F. In the same way any other ray parallel in n to the principal axis would intersect it at F. The point at which the rays of a pencil meet after refraction is called a *focus*. The focus for parallel rays is called the *principal focus*. The distance ($h.F$) of the principal focus from the refracting surface is called the *principal focal distance*. Rays parallel to any secondary axis are focussed on that axis in the same vertical plane as the principal focus; this plane ($F\,F'$) is called the *principal focal plane*.[1]

The radius of curvature (r) of the refracting surface, and the relative refracting power of the two media (n and n') being known, the principal focal distance F can be found by the formula—

$$(1) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad F = \frac{n'\,r}{n' - n}$$

Rays coming from n' and passing into n are of course subject to the same laws, so that rays which are parallel to the principal axis in

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[1] It would be more accurately represented by the arc of a circle having k as centre, and $k\,F$ as radius.

n' will have their focus on it in n; this is called the *anterior focus* (F^a). Its distance from the refracting surface can be found by the formula—

$$(1a) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad F^a = \frac{n\,r}{n'-n}.$$

Now let a ray $f\,h'$ (fig. 87), instead of being parallel to the principal axis A B, come from some point, f, on it; since $f\,h'$ diverges from A B it meets the normal $h'\,k$ at a greater angle than if it were parallel to A B, so that the same change in its direction will not cause it to intersect A B at F, but at some greater distance, f'; and any other rays from f would meet at f'. Conversely, if we considered the rays as starting from f' they would be focussed at f, hence the two points f and f' are said to be *conjugate foci*. Conjugate foci are situated on the same axis. The principal focal distance (F) being known, the conjugate focus (f') of any point (f) can be found by the formula—

$$(2) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad \frac{1}{F} = \frac{1}{f} + \frac{1}{f'}$$

provided that the foci are on *opposite* sides of the refracting surface; the case in which they are both on one side will be considered presently.

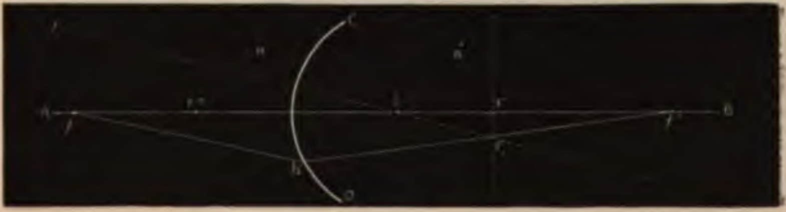

FIG. 87.

If the positions of k and F are known, the conjugate focus of f can also be found by construction. Draw $f_{,}\,k$ (fig. 87) parallel to $f\,h'$; prolong it to meet the principal focal plane at $F_{,}$; then $f_{,}\,F_{,}$ forms a secondary axis. Since $f\,h'$ is parallel in n to the secondary axis, $f_{,}\,F_{,,}$ it will after refraction intersect the latter at the principal focal plane $F\,F_{,,}$ i.e. at $F_{,,}$ but the conjugate focus of f must lie on $A\,B$; prolong $h'\,F_{,,}$ until it intersects $A\,B$; and the point of intersection, f', will be conjugate focus of f.

Both from the formula (2) and from fig. 87 it is evident that the nearer f is brought to the refracting surface the further will f' recede; when the distance of f from the surface is equal to twice the principal focal distance ($f=2F$), f' will be at the same distance on the other side; so we get this rule:

When conjugate foci are at equal distances from the refracting surface, that distance is double that of the principal focus.

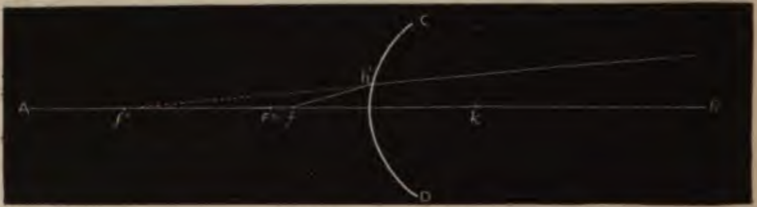

FIG. 88.

If f coincides with F^a, the rays in n' will be parallel; if it is brought still nearer to the refracting surface, as in fig. 88, the rays will diverge in n', and therefore would only meet if prolonged backwards, so that the conjugate focus of f would now be on the same side of the refracting surface (f', fig. 88).

The conjugate focus of f is now said to be *negative*, and is a *virtual*, as distinguished from a *real*, focus—i.e. it is not formed by a meeting of the actual rays, but of their imaginary prolongations: and formula 2 must now be altered by giving the minus sign to f', so that it becomes:

$$(2\,a) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad \frac{1}{F}=\frac{1}{f}-\frac{1}{f'}.$$

So far we have considered refraction at one spherical surface only; if, however, a ray passes through the more refracting medium, and again emerges into the less refracting, it is refracted again at the second surface.

Lenses are portions of a highly refracting substance, generally glass, having one or both surfaces curved. Those with which we shall deal at present are biconvex and biconcave, and their surfaces are portions of a sphere; they are therefore called spherical lenses; later on we shall have to deal with cylindrical lenses.

A biconvex lens renders rays less divergent, and a biconcave renders them more divergent, at both surfaces.

If parallel before refraction, the convex lens will render them convergent, and the concave divergent.

The above rule as to the action of lenses only applies if, as is usually the case, the material of the lens is more refracting than the medium in which it is placed; if these conditions are reversed, the convex lens becomes a diverging and the concave a converging lens. Divers sometimes use spectacles in which the lenses are formed of air, *i.e.* they are composed of two curved plates of glass inclosing a cavity which is the shape of a concave lens and contains air. A concave air-lens of this nature, when used in water, has the same effect as a convex glass lens in air. In air it would have no action.

In a bi-spherical lens, the *principal axis* is the line joining the centres of curvature of the two surfaces ($c\, c'$, fig. 89).

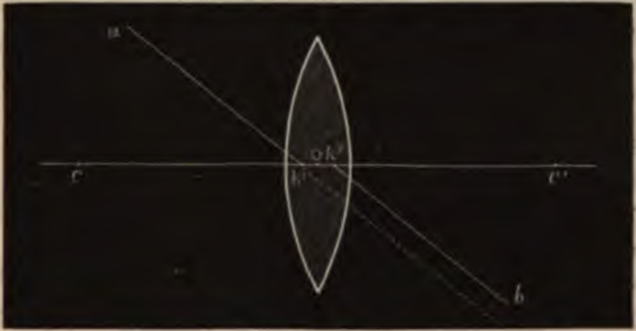

FIG. 89.

In considering refraction at a single surface, we saw that rays which passed through the optical centre (which, in that case, coincided with the centre of curvature) underwent no change of direction; in double refraction, the only ray whose course remains absolutely unchanged is the one which coincides with the principal axis; for every bi-spherical lens, however, there are two '*nodal points*' ($k^1\, k^2$, fig. 89), whose relation to each other is such that a ray which is directed to the one before refraction is directed to the other after refraction, and its course is then parallel to its previous direction. The ray $a\, b$ (fig. 89) therefore undergoes parallel displacement; it is evident, however, that, except in very thick lenses, or with great obliquity of the incident ray, a very trifling difference would be made by drawing the ray through a point o between the nodal points. Such a point constitutes the *Optical Centre*, and rays which pass through it may, for all practical purposes, be considered to undergo no change in their direction, and to constitute *secondary axes.*

The principal focus of a bispherical lens is found by the following formula, r being the radius of the first surface and r' that of the second, and n' and n the refractive indices[1] of the material of which the lens is made, and of the medium in which it is placed, respectively:

$$(3) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad \frac{1}{F'} = (n'-n) \left(\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{r'}\right).$$

In most bispherical lenses, the curvature of both surfaces is the same; and, as the index of refraction of glass is approximately 1·5, and that of air is 1·0, the formula becomes:

$$\frac{1}{F} = \frac{(1{\cdot}5-1)\,2}{r}; \text{ or } F=r;$$

that is to say, in bispherical lenses with similar surfaces the principal focal distance is equal to the radius of curvature.

Conjugate foci are found by formulæ (2) and (2 a), as in single refraction.

At the conjugate focus of any point an exact image of the point is formed. When the image is formed by the actual meeting of the rays it is said to be *real*, when it is only formed by an imaginary prolongation of the rays it is said to be *virtual.*

The image of an object is the sum of the images of all points of the object. The position and size of the image can therefore be found by finding the position of the conjugate focus of the extreme points of the object. For the images of all the other points of the object will lie between these, and in the same focal plane.

As rays coming from any point on an axial ray are focussed on the same axis, and as the course of the latter is not changed, it follows that the size of the image in relation to that of the object is the same as the relation of their distances from the optical centre.[1]

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[1] The index of refraction of any substance is its refractive power as compared with that of air, the latter being expressed by unity.

Examples.—If the object ($a\,b$, fig. 90) be situated at more than twice the principal focal distance, the image ($b'a'$) is smaller than the object, real, and inverted.

If situated at twice the principal focal distance, it is of the same size, real, and inverted.

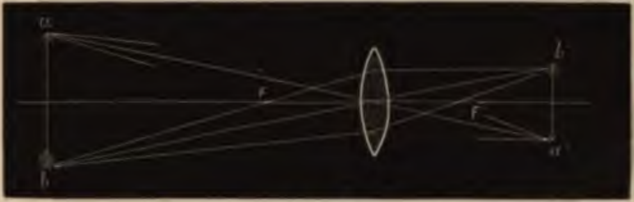

FIG. 90.

If the object is beyond the principal focal distance, but at less than twice that distance, the image is larger than the object, real, and inverted. This will be seen if, in fig. 90, $a'\,b'$ is considered as the object, and $a\,b$ as the image.

If situated at the principal focus (fig. 91), the rays would be parallel, and, as they would never meet, no image would be formed.

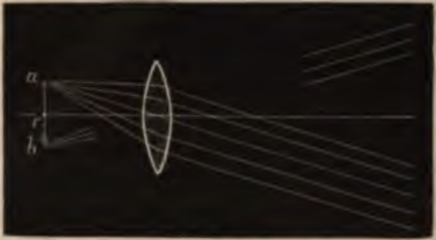

FIG. 91.

If nearer still (fig. 92), the rays would be divergent, and would therefore only meet when prolonged *backwards*; the image is therefore larger than the object, virtual, and erect. Such an image could only be seen by looking *through* the lens.

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[1] Strictly speaking, as the distance of the image and the object respectively from the *nodal point* which is situated on the same side of the optical centre.

With a concave lens (fig. 93) the image is always smaller than the object, virtual, and erect.

When the image is real it can be projected on to a screen, but this cannot of course be done with virtual images, which can only be seen by looking *through* the lens.

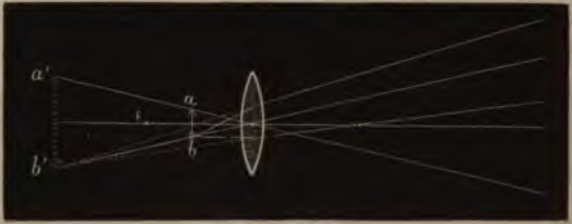

FIG. 92.

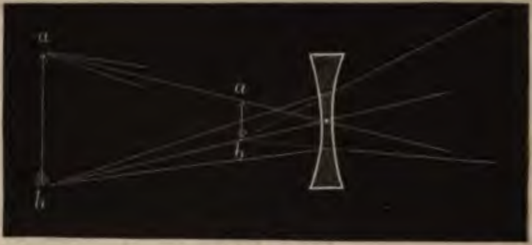

FIG. 93.

Spherical aberration.—We have hitherto assumed that rays coming from any point are accurately focussed in a point; this is, however, only true of those which fall upon the refracting surface at no great distance from its principal axis. As long as the aperture of a lens (i.e. the angle formed by lines drawn from its edges to the principal focus) does not exceed 12°, the error from this source may be disregarded. But rays which fall upon the refracting surface beyond this limit are refracted more powerfully than the more central rays; this, which is called *spherical aberration*, causes slight loss of definition in an image; it can be overcome in optical instruments by the use of diaphragms, by employing refracting surfaces whose curves are parabolic, and by a combination of lenses.

Chromatic Aberration.—Impaired definition of the image also arises from the fact that all the constituents of colourless light are not equally refracted; thus the red waves are the least, the violet the most refractile. (See Chapter X.) If an image of a brightly illuminated white spot be formed on a screen by a lens, the central part will be white because there all the rays are combined, but the edge will be fringed with colour; this is called *chromatic aberration*, and is overcome in optical instruments by using a combination of lenses composed of different materials.

Section II.—The Eye considered as an Optical Instrument.

For distinct vision three factors must be associated: (1) well-defined images of external objects must be formed on the retina at the posterior pole of the eye.

(2) The nervous elements of the retina which correspond to this image must be stimulated, and the effect be conducted to the brain.

(3) The mind must be able to interpret correctly the impressions thus received. The first is the result of the optical properties of the eye, and with it alone we are here concerned.

The eye is a closed, nearly spherical, chamber, measuring 22·2 mm. in its antero-posterior diameter. It is almost impervious to light except in front, where it is closed in by a transparent membrane, the cornea, which is more sharply curved than the opaque portion of the investing tunic, having a radius of curvature of nearly 8 mm.

The opaque portion of the sphere is formed by a firm fibrous membrane, the sclerotic, whose structure is continuous with that of the cornea. This is lined by an extremely vascular membrane, the choroid, and this again by a layer of nervous tissue, the retina, which is an expansion of the optic nerve. The latter enters the eye a little to the inner side of its posterior pole through an aperture in the sclerotic and choroid.

The eye contains a transparent fluid, the aqueous humour, and a transparent gelatinous substance, the vitreous; the refractive indices of these are, however, almost the same, and for optical purposes they may be considered as a single medium, having an index of refraction of 1·337.

Since the surfaces of the cornea are parallel, rays passing through it alone, from air on the one side into air on the other, would merely undergo parallel displacement. Its thickness may therefore be disregarded, and it may be looked upon as the surface of separation between the air and the intraocular fluids. If this constituted the whole of the refracting system of the eye, as it does after the operation of cataract extraction, its principal focal distance calculated by formula (1) would be about 31·5 mm.; but suspended in the eye, between the aqueous and the vitreous, is a biconvex lens of still more highly refracting substance; this is placed in the eye in such a position that its optical centre is 5·8 mm. behind the anterior surface of the cornea. The effect of this combination is such that the principal focus for the whole eye is 22·2 mm. from the cornea, that is, on the retina. The following are the optical constants of the normal eye which are the most important (Helmholtz):

	mm.
Radius of curvature of cornea	8
" anterior surface of lens	10
" posterior surface of lens	6
Distance from anterior surface of cornea:	
To anterior surface of lens	3·6
To posterior surface of lens	7·2
To principal focal point	22·2

The nodal points are only 0·4 mm. apart, and may be replaced by an optical centre situated at the posterior surface of the lens.

The part of the retina which is most sensitive is that known as the 'yellow spot,' and for accurate vision it is necessary that the retinal image should be formed on this. This spot is situated a little to the outer side of the point where the optic axis—a line drawn through the centre of cornea and the optical centre to the posterior pole of the eye—cuts the retina (A B, fig. 94).

The line which passes from the yellow spot through the optical centre is called the visual line (V v), because an object must be situated on it for its image to fall on the yellow spot. The angle which the visual line makes with the optic axis is called the angle α; it varies somewhat, but in normal eyes its average magnitude is 3° or 4°.

The dioptric system of the eye consists, then, of three refracting surfaces—the cornea, and the anterior and the posterior surfaces of the lens—and of three refracting media—the aqueous, lens, and vitreous; the first and third, however, have the same index of refraction. Rays entering the eye are refracted at each of the three refracting surfaces, each refraction rendering them more convergent. In front of the lens is the iris, which forms a diaphragm whose aperture can be varied.

Schematic Eye.—It is essential for diagrammatic purposes to simplify these changes in the direction of the rays without altering the final result of the refraction. For this purpose the reduced eye of Prof. Donders is extremely useful (fig. 94). It is supposed to contain only one refracting medium, whose index of refraction is to that of air as 4 to 3, and to have only one refracting surface—the cornea. Its dimensions are as follows. The radius of curvature of the cornea is 5 mm. and its centre of curvature, *k*, of course coincides with the optical centre of the eye. The length of the eye from cornea to posterior pole is 20 mm. By formulæ 1 and 1*a* (p. 314) $F = 20$ mm. and $F^a = 15$ mm. The size of retinal images formed in such an eye does not differ much from that of those formed in the natural eye—being $\frac{1}{10}$ less.

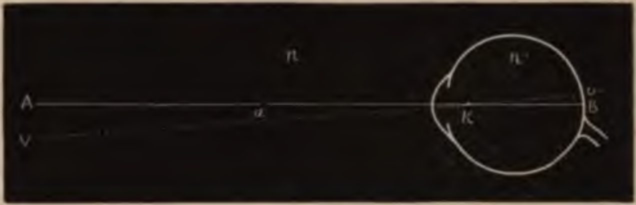

FIG. 94.

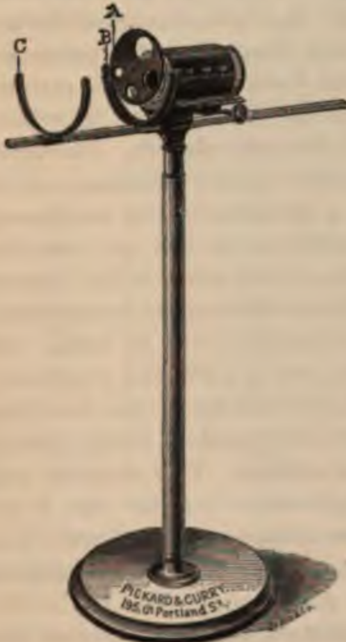

FIG. 95.—Frost's Artificial Eye.

Artificial Eye.—For practical experiments in connection with refraction it is often necessary to use an artificial eye, and several elaborate and expensive instruments have been constructed for this purpose. In many instances a convex lens to replace the dioptric system of the eye, and a screen with some arrangement by which its distance from the lens can be altered, answers the purpose. For experiments in which greater accuracy is required, the simple and inexpensive artificial eye, shown in fig. 95, will be found very useful. The dioptric system of the eye is represented by a biconvex lens of 40 mm. focus. Immediately in front of this is a disc containing diaphragms of several sizes, to represent different-sized pupils. By means of a rack and pinion the length of the eye can be varied between 30 and 65 mm., the distance of the retina from the posterior nodal point being shown by an index on a scale. There are two surfaces to represent the retina; the one, a ground glass, divided into millimetres—so that the formation of images can be seen and their size measured; the other painted to represent a normal fundus. In front of the lens are two fixed clips A and B, placed respectively at 5 and 10 mm. from the anterior nodal point, while a third (C) clip travels on a graduated bar which can itself be lengthened, shortened, or removed, and is constructed to hold a lens, test object, or a ground-glass screen.

Accommodation.—Presbyopia.—So far the eye has been described as a passive instrument in which images of distant objects only can be formed with any clearness on the retina, for the latter is placed at the principal focus of its dioptric system. The eye, however, possesses the means of increasing its refractive power, and so adapting itself for near objects. The crystalline lens is composed of a somewhat elastic substance, and it is suspended in its position by a membrane—the suspensory ligament—which is stretched tightly across the eye near the junction of the cornea and sclerotic, and attached to the capsule of the lens. By the tension of this membrane the lens is made to assume a flatter shape than it would if left to itself. By the action of the ciliary muscle (see p. 119), the suspensory ligament is relaxed, and the natural elasticity of the lens then causes it to become more convex, the greatest change taking place in the form of its anterior surface. This muscular act, which is called *accommodation*, because by it the eye is accommodated for near objects, has always associated with it a contraction of the pupil, which prevents the most divergent rays from entering the eye.

As age advances, the substance of the lens becomes less elastic, and the same muscular effort does not then produce so great an increase in its convexity. At the age of ten the accommodation is sufficiently powerful for an object to be clearly seen at 7 cm. (2¾ in.), but after this it gets gradually weaker, so that the nearest point of distinct vision (often written *p.p.*, *punctum proximum*) recedes further and further from the eye, until, at the age of seventy-five, all accommodation is lost.

A knowledge of the strength of accommodation proper to each period of life is necessary in order that any departure from the normal condition of this function may be recognised.

In the following table, opposite each age, is placed in the first column the strength of the lens, in dioptres, which is equivalent to the maximum amount of accommodation which can be used, and which therefore expresses the *amplitude of accommodation*, or the difference between the refractive power of the eye when adapted for its 'far-' and 'near-points.' In the last two columns are given the distances of the 'near-point' in centimetres and inches. It will be seen that the position of the latter coincides in each case with the focus of lens which represents the amplitude of accommodation.

Table of Amplitude of Accommodation (from Landolt).

Age	Amplitude of Accommodation	Distance of 'near-point'	
	D.	cm.	ins.
10	14	7	2¾
15	12	8	3
20	10	10	4
25	8·5	11·7	4½
30	7	14	5½
35	5·5	18	7
40	4·5	22	8¾
45	3·5	28·6	11¼
50	2·5	40·5	16
55	1·75	57	23
60	1	100	39·5
65	0·75	—	—
70	0·25	—	—
75	0·0	—	—

When the near-point recedes farther than 25 cm. (10 in.) reading &c. becomes difficult, because, at the distance at which the book is ordinarily held, the whole accommodation available has to be used, and hence fatigue is soon experienced; while if the book is held further away, only large print can be read, because of the diminution in the size of the retinal images.

When, owing to the failure of accommodation, the 'near-point' has receded beyond 22 cm. (9 in.), the condition is called *presbyopia* (aged sight), and its effects are obviated by supplementing the accommodation by convex spectacles of such a strength as to bring the near-point back to 22 cm. If the refraction of the eye is normal, the lens which will be required to do this will depend on the age of the patient. The presbyopic correction proper to any age can be found by ascertaining the difference between the amplitude of accommodation which corresponds to that age and 4·5 D., which is the amount required to bring the near-point to 22 cm. A useful practical rule to remember is to add 1 D. for every five years, beginning at forty-five; beyond the age of sixty, however, this does not hold good. If the refraction is not normal, it must be corrected first, and then the presbyopic correction added to the glass which is required for this purpose. In cases where the patient requires to see at his work at a greater distance than that at which a book is generally held, glasses slightly weaker than would correct the presbyopia must be given; in such cases, however, the patient is generally the best judge. This subject will be referred to again in a later section.

Optical Defects of the Normal Eye.—The eye is sometimes spoken of as if it were a perfect optical instrument; this, however, is very far from being the case. It is, it is true, wonderfully well adapted to its purpose, for the range of its vision extends in a straight line from a few inches from the eye to an infinite distance, whilst, with the eyes directed forward, objects can be seen, although indistinctly, which lie as much as 90° on both sides of the head, and this lateral range can be increased still further on either side by a movement of the eyes—the head remaining fixed, and of course to a much greater extent by movement of the latter. The perfect adaptation of the eye to all the requirements of vision does not depend so much on its perfection as an optical instrument as on its free mobility, the great sensibility of the retina, and the readiness with which the mind interprets the impressions conveyed to it.

Spherical aberration is to a great extent, but not entirely, obviated by the iris, and chromatic aberration is considerable. The cornea is not a perfectly spherical surface,[1] for its vertical meridian generally has a shorter radius of curvature than the horizontal. In consequence of this few people see vertical and horizonal lines with quite equal clearness. The media of the eye, moreover, are not perfectly clear, for in the lens are numerous striæ and spots, besides the regularly radiating striæ which mark its division into sectors, and in the vitreous are a large number of floating cells and fibres. All these structures can be brought into view by throwing light into the eye in an unusual manner so that their shadows are formed on a part of the retina unaccustomed to them. The retina, too, does not form a continuous surface for the reception of visual impression, for besides the large hiatus formed by the entrance of the optic nerve—the 'blind spot'—the blood-vessels of the retina itself pass in front of its sensitive elements and cause linear gaps in the visual field.

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[1] Strictly speaking, the cornea is not a portion of a spherical surface at all, but forms the extremity of an ellipse. A small circle described on the blunter extremity of an egg would give a good idea of its form.

The sensibility of the retina varies very greatly at different parts. So great is it at the centre—the fovea centralis—that the average eye can distinguish two points if they are separated by an angular measurement of only one minute, while many eyes can do the same with a somewhat smaller angle; but from this point towards the periphery its sensibility rapidly diminishes, owing to the greater scarcity of the cones, so that as an object is moved towards the peripheral part of the visual field, its colour is first lost and then its form, although a visual impression, sufficient to indicate the presence of the object and its position, remains longer.

The eye can be so readily directed towards an object, so that its image falls on the fovea centralis, that this indistinct lateral vision is all that is really required for practical purposes; while, owing to our visual impressions being formed as the result of experience, we notice the defects in the visual field so little that most people are quite unaware that they have in each field a gap sufficient to include a man's head at a distance of seven feet.

Visual angle.—It will be seen from what has preceded that the distance between the retinal images of any two points will depend, not only on the distance of the two points from each other, but also on their distance from the eye.

Thus, in fig. 96, the retinal image $b'a'$ would occupy the same position at whatever points on the lines $a\,a'$ and $b\,b'$ the points a and b were situated; and if a and b were the terminal points of an object $a\,b$, the retinal image of the object would be of the same size as long as it subtended the angle $a\,k\,b$.

The angle made by the axial rays from the terminal points of an object at the optical centre is called the *visual angle.* The size of the retinal image of an object is in direct proportion to the visual angle under which it is seen ; therefore, objects which

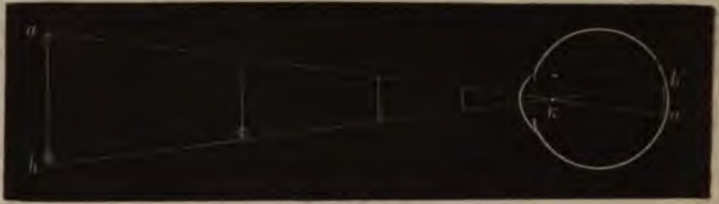

FIG. 96.

are seen under the same visual angle have retinal images of the same size.

Visual acuteness.—It is essential to have a standard of normal vision, and some method of expressing numerically departures from it. This is very conveniently supplied by Snellen's test types, which are those in ordinary use in this country, and of which a copy will be found at the end of this book. These consist of letters of various sizes, the strokes of which the letters are formed being in every case a fifth of the diameter of the letter. The smallest letters are 9 mm. in diameter, and at 6 metres are therefore seen under a visual angle of five minutes (5″); while each component stroke is seen under an angle of one minute. This has been found to be the smallest visual angle under which the majority of healthy eyes can recognise an object. If, therefore, the row of smallest letters can be distinctly seen at 6 M., the visual acuteness is said to be normal, or it may be expressed as $V=1$.

Each row of letters has a number indicating the distance at which it must be placed, in order to be seen under a visual angle of 5″, and the visual acuteness may be conveniently expressed by a fraction, the numerator of which is the distance in metres at which the letters are situated, and the denominator the distance at which the smallest letters which can be read would make a visual angle of 5 minutes.

For example : (1) Standing at 6 M., the smallest letters are read $V=\frac{6}{6}$. (2) But, if at 6 M. the smallest letters which can be read are those which would make a visual angle of 5″, if removed to 12 M., it is evident that the visual acuteness is only half that of the normal eye, $V=\frac{6}{12}$. (3) The letters which should be seen at 60 M. cannot be read until they are brought as near as 3 M., $V = \frac{3}{60}$, and so on.

In this country the distance is often expressed in feet instead of in metres.

The following table shows the relation between the two systems of notation:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{6}{60} = \frac{20}{200} & \\
\frac{6}{36} = \frac{20}{120} & \left(\frac{20}{100}\right) \\
\frac{6}{24} = \frac{20}{80} & \left(\frac{20}{70}\right) \\
\frac{6}{18} = \frac{20}{60} & \left(\frac{20}{50}\right) \\
\frac{6}{12} = \frac{20}{40} & \\
\frac{6}{9} = \frac{20}{30} & \\
\frac{6}{6} = \frac{20}{20} &
\end{array}$$

The types used, however, often do not correspond exactly with those of Snellen, and letters which correspond more closely to the figures in brackets in the third column are more generally employed.

Besides the test types just described, there are others which form a continuous series with them, and which are adapted for distances ranging from 5 M. to 0·50 M. These, for distinction, are called Reading Types, and a sample of them will also be found at the end of the book. They are not so well adapted for testing the visual acuteness as the distance types, as for near objects the accommodation must be used, and a defect due to weakness of the latter might be mistaken for diminished acuteness of vision. Objects, on the other hand, held near the eye are rather more easily recognised than more distant ones which are seen under the same visual angle, because the amount of light entering the eye in the former case is proportionately greater; for, while the size of the retinal image varies directly as the distance, the amount of illumination varies as the square of the distance. Notwithstanding this source of error, the reading types often form a very convenient rough test of the visual acuteness. In this country Snellen's reading types are less used than those of Jaeger, which are not arranged on any scientific plan, but are simply ordinary printer's types of various sizes from 'Brilliant' to '8-line Roman,' numbered consecutively.

Section III.—Errors of Refraction.

We have seen that in the normal eye the retina is placed at the principal focus of the dioptric system; it is evident that this condition may be departed from in either of two directions, and that the retina may be either beyond the principal focus of the dioptric system—*Myopia* (M, fig. 97), or in front of it—*Hypermetropia* (H). The normal, or mean, condition is called *Emmetropia*, while any departure from this is called *Ametropia*.

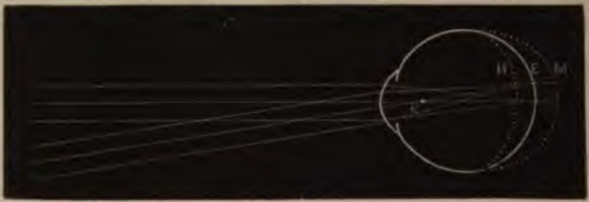

FIG. 97.

It must be understood that in speaking of the refraction of an eye the accommodation is always assumed to be relaxed.

(i.) **Myopia** (M, figs. 97 and 98), being the condition in which the retina lies beyond the principal focus of the dioptric system, may be due (1) to the antero-posterior axis of the eye being too long, or (2) to the refraction of the eye being too great. The first, which is called *axial myopia*, is by far the most common; the second, *refractive myopia*, may be due to an increase in the refractive power of the nucleus of the crystalline lens, and is sometimes met with in the early stages of nuclear cataract.

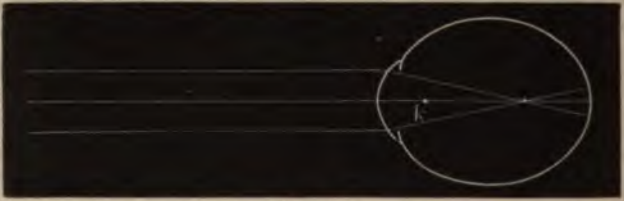

FIG. 98.

Owing to tonic spasm of the ciliary muscle, an eye is sometimes maintained in a state of accommodation for a near point.

This condition is not myopia, although often difficult to distinguish from it, for the refraction of an eye must be estimated from its condition when the accommodation is relaxed.

Since the retina lies beyond the principal focus of the dioptric system of the eye, rays from any point (a, fig. 99) on the retina do not leave the eye parallel, as in emmetropia, but converging (compare fig. 90 on p. 319), and they will therefore meet at a focus (a') in front of the eye. Conversely, the only rays which can come to a focus on the retina, while the accommodation is at rest, are diverging rays from points which lie in the same plane as a', as, for instance, b'. Since rays coming from a' and b' come to a focus at a and b respectively, it follows that a retinal image would be formed of any object of which a and b were the terminal points.

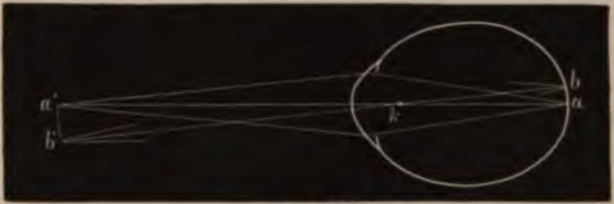

FIG. 99.

If the accommodation were used, rays which were more divergent—i.e. coming from a nearer point than a'—could be brought to a focus on the retina; but under no circumstances could this occur with those which are less divergent, i.e. coming from a greater distance than a'. For this reason a' is called the '*far-point*' of the eye, as it is the farthest point of distinct vision. The far-point (often written *p.r.*, *punctum remotum*) may be defined as the conjugate focus of the yellow spot; in emmetropia it is at infinity, for the rays, being parallel, would never meet; in myopia, as we have just seen, it is positive and finite.

Not only is an image of an object, which is situated at the far-point of a myopic eye, formed on the retina, but a real inverted image of the fundus is formed at the far-point (see p. 315).

The reader will do well to verify the preceding statements by experiments with the artificial eye (p. 323). Affix the glass retina and render the eye myopic by lengthening it; its far-point can then be found by formula (2): $\frac{1}{F}=\frac{1}{f}+\frac{1}{f'}$ (page 315), and it will be seen that a clear image of any object is only formed on the glass retina when that object is situated at the '*far-point*.' Next, place a light behind the eye and a ground-glass screen on the movable clip (c); it will be found that, when the ground glass is at the far-point, a distinct inverted image of the markings on the glass retina is formed on it. If the screen be now removed the image is formed, and can be seen, in the air.

We have seen that to the emmetrope distance alone forms no limit to vision; the myope, on the contrary, has clear vision of no objects situated beyond his far-point: hence the popular name for myopia—'short-sightedness'—is a good one.

Rays, coming from a point beyond the far-point of a myopic eye, can be focussed on the retina by rendering them as divergent as they would be if they came from the 'far-point;' for parallel rays this would be accomplished by a concave lens of such a strength, and placed in such a position, that its principal focus would coincide with the 'far-point.' Thus, in fig. 100 the far-point is at *p r*; rays, therefore, which diverged from this point would be focussed on the retina; if, now, a concave lens be placed in front of the eye, its focus

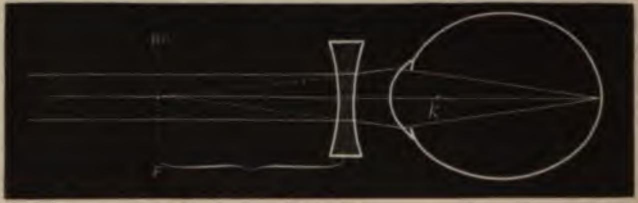

FIG. 100.

being at *p r*, it renders parallel rays as divergent as if they came from that point, and so enables them to be focussed on the retina.

With the artificial eye lengthened to 50 mm. the *p.r.* by formula (2) (page 315) would be 200 mm., and a concave lens of 195 mm. focal length (5·13 D), placed 5 mm. in front of the eye, would render the images of distant objects on the retina sharp and distinct as in emmetropia, or in other words would *correct* the myopia.

Myopia is, as we have seen, usually the result of an elongation of the antero-posterior diameter. The eye is generally also enlarged in other directions, but to a less extent. Although the tendency to myopia is frequently inherited, that condition is itself seldom present at birth, but comes on during childhood. The essential condition for the production of myopia would seem to be a diminished power of resistance in the ocular tunics; it is, however, a disputed point what the anatomical lesion is which causes the weakening. There are certain conditions which accelerate the appearance of myopia in those who are predisposed to it, and may even induce it in cases in which there is no reason to suspect the existence of any such tendency. The most potent of these is the employment of the eyes in childhood for near work in a defective light. To compensate for the paucity of light an attempt is made to obtain larger retinal images. The head is held down close to the book; this necessitates a strong effort of convergence in order that binocular vision may be maintained, and a corresponding effort of accommodation is made by each eye. The action of the recti muscles on the globe tends, if its tissues are weak, to cause it to bulge at the posterior pole, where it is unsupported by muscles. The eye has not attained its full growth, and its circulation, like that of all growing organs, is active and easily influenced by causes which would not affect a fully developed organ. The obstruction to the return of blood by the compression of the cervical veins produced by the position of the head, and the action of the recti and ciliary muscles, induces a state of chronic congestion which weakens the investing tunics. There is possibly also combined with this, in some cases, an increased activity in the secretion of the intraocular fluid, so that, while on the one hand the power of resistance of the eye is diminished, on the other the forces tending to its distension are increased.

In the worst cases a chronic inflammatory process is set up in the sclerotic and choroid at the posterior pole, and the elongation of the eye rapidly increases (*progressive myopia*), while the choroid becomes thinned and atrophied, the changes usually commencing in the portion adjacent to, and on the outer side of, the optic disc.

The atrophy of the choroid exposes the sclerotic to view, and so produces the appearance of a white or yellowish-white area extending to a variable extent from the optic disc. At first it is crescentic in shape, and confined to the outer border of disc, as in fig. 1, opposite p. 142; generally its border presents several patches of pigment, which did not exist in the case from which the plate was taken. Later on, this crescent may become irregular in shape, increase in size, and so extend further towards the yellow spot, and may surround the disc; very frequently associated with this condition are isolated patches of choroiditis and atrophy (see fig. 2, opposite p. 142). In its early stage it is generally called a *myopic crescent*, although the same appearance is occasionally seen in emmetropic or hypermetropic eyes; in its more fully developed condition it always indicates that a considerable bulging (*posterior staphyloma*) has taken place at the posterior pole of the eye.

A myopic eye presents other peculiarities besides those already mentioned; thus the anterior chamber is frequently of great depth, the ciliary muscle is elongated, its transverse fibres being defective. The optic nerve enters the sclerotic obliquely, and the white matter of Schwann often extends to the level of the retina over the whole disc, so that the physiological cupping is absent. The nerve sheath, instead of ceasing at the point where the nerve enters the sclerotic, is prolonged a short distance into its substance, a condition which must still further weaken this part of the eye. The angle made by the visual line and the optic axis is smaller than in emmetropia, indeed in some cases the visual lies on the outer side of the optic axis, and the angle *a* (see page 322) is then said to be *negative*.

When myopia has once become established, some of the conditions which combined to produce it are removed; thus the accommodation is used less, or not at all, and, since accommodation and convergence are associated acts, the myope finds it easier to give up convergence, and to use one eye only at a time for near vision. The elliptical shape assumed by the eyeball is less adapted for rotation within Tenon's capsule than the more spherical form of the emmetropic eye, and this also renders convergence difficult. In a short time the power of convergence becomes so impaired that it can be maintained, even by an effort, only for a few seconds, and before long may be altogether lost, and one eye remain in a state of divergence. (*See* Divergent Strabismus.)

The action of the ciliary muscle and internal recti having been in this way annulled, the myopia may in favourable cases remain stationary; such eyes are, however, liable to suffer from an increase of their myopia if the general health is in any way impaired; and patients—mostly women—are not unfrequently met with who, having had a high degree of myopia since childhood, suffer after middle life without any obvious cause from its rapid increase, with atrophic changes in the choroid, the appearance of opacities in the vitreous, which is unduly fluid, and in the lens.

The importance of preventing myopia by the removal of all conditions likely to cause it, cannot be too forcibly impressed on all who have to do with the education of the young. It is most important that the light should be good; it should on no account be facing the pupils, and by preference should come from the left side for writing, while the desks and seats should be so arranged that no stooping is necessary. For reading, the type should be clear, and not too small.

The treatment of myopia by glasses will be considered in a later section.

(ii.) **Hypermetropia** (H, fig. 97, and fig. 101) is the condition in which the retina lies in front of the principal focus of the dioptric system of the eye. It may be due to the antero-posterior axis of the eye being too short—*axial hypermetropia*—and this is the common form, or to the refractive power of the eye being diminished by flattening of the cornea, diminished refractive power in the lens, or absence of the lens—aphakia.

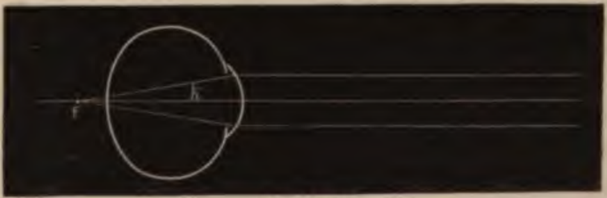

FIG. 101.

Since the retina lies in front of the principal focus, rays from any point on it will be divergent on leaving the eye (fig. 101),[1] and the conjugate focus of any such point will therefore be behind the eye, at the point where the rays would meet if prolonged, the *punctum remotum* (fig. 102) is therefore *negative* and

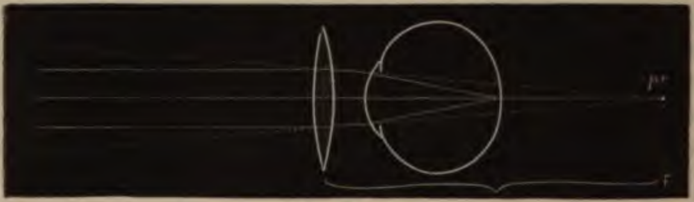

FIG. 102.

virtual. As in myopia, an image of the fundus is formed at the far-point, but in this case the image is erect and virtual.

Since the rays from the retina are divergent on leaving the eye, it is evident that only convergent rays can be focussed on the retina, but in nature there are no such rays, hence a hypermetrope, with his accommodation relaxed, has no distinct vision of any objects, but by means of the accommodation the refractive power of the eye can be increased, and parallel, and even divergent rays, be brought to a focus on the retina if the ciliary muscle is sufficiently powerful. The muscular effort required will, however, be great in proportion to the nearness of the object, so that such eyes tire comparatively soon, if continuously fixed on near objects, while more distant ones may be viewed for a considerable time without fatigue; hence the popular term 'long-sightedness.' This condition must not be confounded with that of presbyopia, in which the refraction may be normal, but the accommodation having become weakened from age, near vision is impaired.

We have seen that converging rays are the only ones which can be focussed by a hypermetropic eye with its accommodation at rest, and that there are in nature no such rays; parallel or divergent rays may, however, be rendered convergent by a convex lens. Thus, if an eye were hypermetropic to such an extent that its far-point were 20 cm. behind the cornea, a lens of such a strength, and so placed, that its principal focus coincided with this point would give to parallel rays the required amount of convergence, and cause them to come to a focus on the retina without any accommodation being used, so that such an eye, with its hypermetropia corrected in this way, would see distant objects under the same conditions as the emmetropic eye (fig. 102).

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[1] Compare also figs. 88 and 92.

If the artificial eye (p. 323) were shortened to 30 mm., its far-point, calculated from formula $2a$ (page 316), would be -120 mm. A convex lens, placed 5 mm. in front of the eye, would require to have a focus of 125 mm. in order to bring parallel rays to a focus on the retina. It will be found that such a lens (+8 D) will give a clear image of distant objects on the ground-glass retina, and will therefore *correct* the hypermetropia.

Since the defective vision due to hypermetropia can be obviated by the use of the accommodation, a small amount may exist without causing any symptoms; if, however, a hypermetrope is called upon to use the eyes much for near objects, trouble, varying in degree and kind in different individuals, is experienced. In slight cases the eyes become tired and bloodshot after being used for some hours. In others the work or book has to be laid aside after a few minutes, owing to the sight becoming dim, or the eyes filling with tears—a group of symptoms often classed under the name of asthenopia, or 'weak sight.' In others, again, reading is always followed by headache, which occasionally is so severe that it is attributed to cerebral causes, and the subject of it condemned to spend his or her time in idleness, when the whole trouble might be removed by correcting the hypermetropia with suitable glasses.

The defect is a congenital one, and due to an imperfect development of the eyeball, but it is seldom discovered until the child begins to learn to read. The symptoms in children differ somewhat from those met with in the adult. Often one of the first indications of there being anything wrong is that the child holds the book very close to the face, and is therefore supposed to be shortsighted. Myopia, however, in young children is rare, and the presence of hypermetropia under these circumstances should always be suspected. The myope obtains clear images of the minutest objects if held within his range of vision, and therefore reads the smallest type with ease; the hypermetrope, on the other hand, can only obtain clear retinal images by using his accommodation, and the nearer the object, the greater is the effort required, but the size of the retinal image increases in proportion as the distance is decreased, and increases at a greater ratio than the circles of diffusion caused by imperfect focussing; hence the child will sometimes prefer to hold the book so near that the ciliary muscle is unequal to the exertion necessary to focus the rays on the retina, because by that means he obtains a large image with less muscular effort than if he held it at a distance for which his accommodation was sufficient.

In other cases the efforts made by the ciliary muscle to respond to the call made upon it result in the production of a tonic contraction by which the eye is maintained in a condition of accommodation for a near point. This spasmodic contraction is involuntary, and therefore cannot be relaxed; hence distant vision is defective and near vision good, and the former is improved by concave lenses. The mode of distinguishing between this condition and myopia will be considered later on.

In many instances of hypermetropia generally of moderate degree, the accommodation is only equal to the necessary effort when it has *convergence* associated with it; hence the child (these cases mostly occur in children) suffers from no defect of vision, but develops a *convergent strabismus*. This subject will be considered more fully in a subsequent chapter; it is sufficient here to note the fact that a greater amount of accommodation can be used if convergence is associated with it than if used alone; and that convergent strabismus in a child is an almost certain sign of hypermetropia.

(iii.) **Astigmatism.**—In considering optical principles and the laws of refraction we saw that rays from any point being refracted at a spherical surface again came to a focus, and formed an image of the point. If, however, one meridian of the refracting surface had a different curvature to the others it is evident that their focal distances would also be different, and that the rays would therefore no longer all be focussed at one point. Such a surface is therefore said to be astigmatic (*a* privative; στίγμα, a point). A familiar example of an astigmatic surface is the bowl of a spoon.

In surfaces which are regularly astigmatic—which the bowl of a spoon is not—the various meridians have the same curve throughout. Those having the longest and shortest radius of curvature are called the principal meridians, and are always at right angles to each other.

It will be necessary to consider in detail the action of an astigmatic surface. In fig. 103 let rays from a point f fall on an astigmatic surface $a\ c\ b\ d$, and let the conjugate focus of f be at f'_2 for rays which pass through the vertical meridian $a\ b$, and at f'_1 for those which pass through the horizontal meridian $c\ d$; it is evident that the section of the cone of rays after refraction will vary in shape according to the position at which it is made; thus, between the refracting surface and f'_1 it will be an oval diminishing in size towards f'_1, the horizontal meridian shortening more rapidly than the vertical; so that as we approach f'_1 we get an oval gradually becoming narrower, until at f'_1 the section is indistinguishable from a vertical line; between f'_1 and f'_2 the vertical diameter will continue to diminish, while the transverse will increase, so that we obtain successively an oval with a long vertical diameter, a circle, an oval with long transverse diameter, and at f'_2 a transverse line. Hence we get this rule:

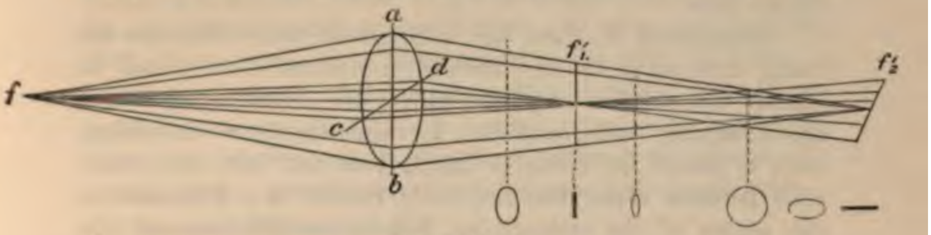

FIG. 103.

If rays from a point are refracted by an astigmatic surface, a linear image of the point is formed at the focus of each principal meridian; and the direction of the line is at right angles to that of the meridian at whose focus it is formed.

If the above rule be kept in mind, all the phenomena of refraction which occur in an astigmatic eye will be readily understood.

Although we have spoken of the cornea as a spherical surface, it is rarely strictly so; usually its vertical meridian has a somewhat shorter radius of curvature, and therefore a greater power of refraction than the horizontal, so that most eyes are astigmatic in a very slight degree; it is only, however, when the difference between the principal meridians is sufficient to interfere with vision that the defect comes under the notice of the surgeon. Astigmatism of the cornea may be increased, diminished, or neutralised by a similar condition in the crystalline lens.

Astigmatism is, then, the condition in which the eye refracts differently in its different meridians. It is usual to classify it into five varieties, which are enumerated in the accompanying table, and this arrangement is a convenient one: it should be borne in mind, however, that the difference between these does not really consist in a difference in the nature of the astigmatism, but in the difference in the refraction of the eye when the astigmatism has been corrected by rendering the principal meridians equal by an alteration in the refraction of one of them.

Variety of astigmatism	Refraction of the principal meridians	Condition to which the eye may be brought by connecting the astigmatism
1. Simple myopic . .	Emmetropic Myopic	Emmetropia
2. Simple hypermetropic .	Emmetropic Hypermetropic	
3. Compound myopic .	Both myopic	Myopia
4. Compound hypermetropic	Both hypermetropic	Hypermetropia
5. Mixed	Myopic Hypermetropic	Myopia or hypermetropia according to which meridian is altered

In simple astigmatism the retina lies at the focus of one of the principal meridians, and the retinal image of a point will therefore be a line at right angles to that meridian. This can be impressed on the memory by a simple experiment. Let the reader render his own eye astigmatic by placing a cylindrical lens in front of it; the axis of the cylinder, shown by marks on the glass, will then be the direction of the unaltered, or emmetropic, meridian; if, now, a point of light be looked at, obtained by looking at a pinhole aperture in a card held close to a flame, the point will be seen as a line of light, and in whatever position the lens is held, the direction of the line will always be at right angles to the axis of the cylinder—i.e. to the emmetropic meridian.

If now, under the same conditions, a straight line be looked at, it will be found that it is only seen clearly when its direction is at right angles to the emmetropic meridian; this is because every point of the line is seen as a minute line. When the direction of all these linear images corresponds with that of the line, the latter appears dark and clear; but when the direction of the linear images is at right angles to the line, the latter is widened out and its edges blurred; this is better seen if two parallel lines, separated by only a small interval, be looked at, then, when the lines are held in the direction of the emmetropic meridian, the space between them becomes indistinguishable.

Hence the following rule:

An eye with simple astigmatism (one of the principal meridians emmetropic) can only see clearly lines whose direction is at right angles to its emmetropic meridian.

Section IV.—LENSES USED IN TESTING REFRACTION.— THE OPHTHALMOSCOPE.

(i.) **Trial lenses.**—Before describing the various methods of ascertaining the refraction of an eye, it will be necessary to make a digression in order to explain the principles on which the lenses used for this purpose are numbered, and to explain the nature and use of the ophthalmoscope, which is also used for the same purpose.

In this country there are two modes in use of numbering lenses.

The one is to give to each lens a number expressing its focal length in inches; thus, we speak of a 3-in. or 6-in. lens. There are several objections to this method: in the first place, since the strength of the lens is in inverse proportion to its focal length, it is necessary to invert the numbers, in order to make them represent the relative power of the lenses; so that in calculating the power of a lens we should speak of it as a $\frac{1}{3}$rd or

$\frac{1}{6}$th; this becomes inconvenient when several have to be added or subtracted. Then, in the higher powers the intervals between the lenses are necessarily unequal. Another great drawback to the system lies in the fact that the inch has a different value in different countries, and as many opticians use foreign glasses, it is not always clear what is meant by a particular number.[1]

The other system of numbering lenses is based on the metrical system of measurement, and is now in very general use. The unit is a glass of a metre focal length, and this is termed a dioptre (1 D.); all other lenses are enumerated as fractions or multiples of this; thus, a lens having a focus of two metres would be half this strength, and would therefore be 0·5 D., while one having a focus of half a metre would be 2·0 D., a third of a metre 3·0 D., and so on. The focal length of any lens numbered on this system is found by dividing a metre by the number of the lens; thus, 4·0 D. would have a focal length of 25 cm., or ten English inches.[2]

A case of trial lenses should contain pairs of convex and concave spherical lenses from 0·25 D. to 20·0 D., and cylindrical lenses convex and concave from 0·25 to 6·0 D.

Spherical lenses have been already sufficiently described, but a few words of explanation are necessary as to the nature of the cylindrical. One surface of such a lens is, as the name implies, a portion of a cylindrical surface; the other is usually plane. If, on the outside of an upright glass cylinder, a circle of an inch and a half diameter is described, the included portion represents very well the surface of a convex cylindrical lens; the vertical meridian, corresponding to the axis of the cylinder, is plane, while the transverse is the most convex. In the same way a circular portion on the inner surface of a hollow cylinder would represent a concave cylindrical lens; the plane meridian would still coincide with the axis of the cylinder, while the most concave would be the transverse. The direction of the axis of the cylinder is marked on the glass either by two lines, one at each side, or by a portion of the lens on each side being ground with the edges of the ground portions parallel to the axis; this meridian, being plane, has no refractive power. The lens is numbered in accordance with the refraction of the meridian of greatest curvature—i.e. the one which is at right angles to the axis; thus, a cylindrical lens of 6 dioptres (6 D. cyl.) means that the refracting power of the meridian of greatest curvature is equal to that of a lens of 6 dioptres.

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[1] 1 English inch = 25·3 mm. 1 Paris inch = 27·07 mm.

[2] The relation of centimetres to inches is approximately as 5 to 2.

From the nature of a cylindrical lens, it follows that the addition of one to an eye which is not astigmatic would render it so, and that by one of suitable strength the difference between the principal meridians of an astigmatic eye could be neutralised and the astigmatism corrected.

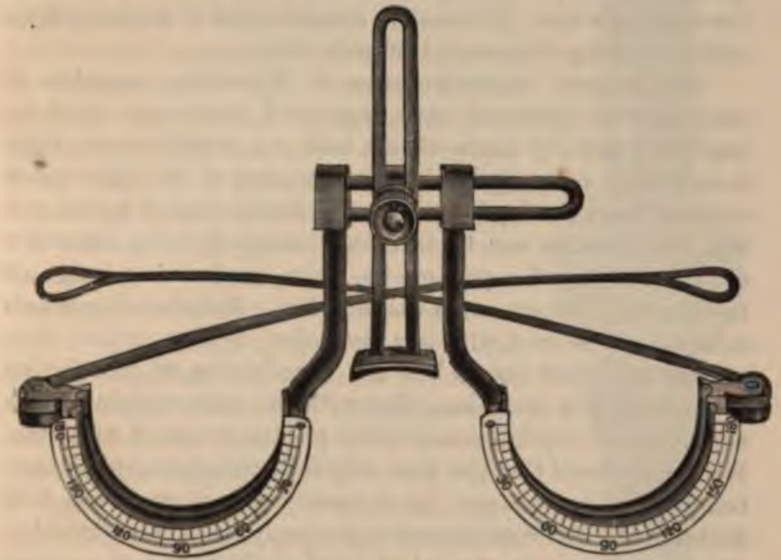

FIG. 104.—Adjustable Trial Frame.

Besides lenses, a trial case should contain a set of prisms, an adjustable trial frame (fig. 104), a block of the same size as the lenses to occlude one eye, a slit one millimetre wide, also mounted like a lens, and a few diaphragms and coloured glasses.

(ii.) **The ophthalmoscope.**—As the ophthalmoscope affords one of the most useful means which we possess of testing refraction, it is necessary to say a few words here concerning its construction and use. The rays which come from any point on the retina of an emmetropic eye leave the eye in a state of parallelism (fig. 97), and could therefore be focussed on the retina of another emmetropic eye. But the only light which comes from an eye is the reflected portion of that which has entered it through the pupil; and, since the emerging pencil follows the same course as that which entered the eye, it follows that the observer's head cannot be placed in a position to receive the former without at the same time intercepting the latter. The ophthalmoscope is a contrivance for throwing light into the eye, and allowing some of the returning rays to enter the observer's eye. It consists essentially of a mirror, which, while reflecting some rays, transmits others.

The original ophthalmoscope of Helmholtz consisted of three parallel plates of glass, separated from each other by small intervals; by means of this, held at a suitable angle, light from a lamp was reflected into the eye, and of the light which returned from the fundus some was reflected from the glass and lost, but a portion was transmitted through it to the observer's eye; and, being focussed on its retina, produced an image of the fundus of the eye under examination. Helmholtz's ophthalmoscope can be used with less discomfort to the patient than perhaps any other form; but the illumination of the fundus obtained by it is much less than with the more modern instruments, and it requires considerable practice to use it with ease. It was soon found that the fears originally entertained of damage being done to the eye by exposure to light were not well founded, and instruments were accordingly constructed in which the mirror was made of polished metal or silvered glass, a central perforation allowing the passage of some of the returning rays.

The modern ophthalmoscope consists essentially of a mirror, which may be plane or concave, having a small central aperture; and this is all that is necessary for the purpose for which the instrument was originally constructed—namely, that of seeing the fundus of the emmetropic eye. But for estimating refraction, it is necessary to have an arrangement by which different lenses can be placed behind the sight-hole; and it is chiefly in the mode in which this latter requirement has been fulfilled that the various instruments differ from each other. The variety of ophthalmoscopes is so great that a mere enumeration of them would occupy a considerable space, and serve no useful purpose; it will suffice to indicate the conditions which are essential to a good instrument, and to mention a few in which these are fulfilled.

The mirror, if there is only one, should be concave, have a focal length of not less than 22 cm. (9 inches), and a diameter of not less than one inch. A second smaller mirror set obliquely with a focal length of about two inches is an advantage, but not essential, and a plane mirror is often useful. There must be a series of convex and concave lenses, and an arrangement by which these can be successively placed behind the sight-hole without removing the instrument from the eye. Much difference of opinion exists as to the number of lenses necessary. Mr. Couper, who was one of the earliest to use the ophthalmoscope systematically for the estimation of refraction, considers that every power should be obtained by a single lens, and that combinations are inadmissible; as he also considers that every ophthalmoscope should possess a lens sufficiently powerful to correct the highest degree of myopia which is likely to be met with, his ophthalmoscope necessarily contains a very large number of lenses. The latest form of his instrument (see fig. 105) contains seventy-four lenses arranged on an endless chain, and is somewhat in the shape of a paper knife. As a specimen of mechanical ingenuity it deserves all praise, but its cost (*5l. 5s.*) and size render it unavailable for general use.

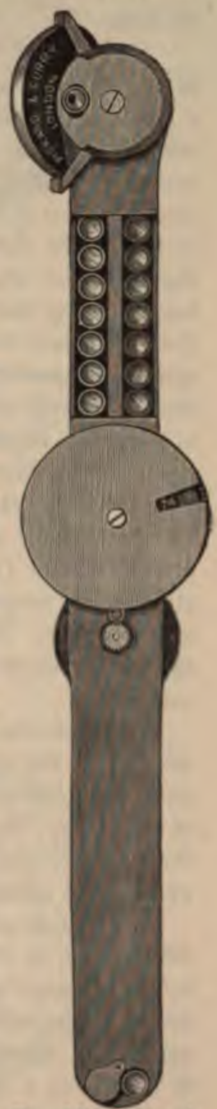

FIG. 105.—Couper's Ophthalmoscope.

An instrument of excellent workmanship and convenient size is that invented by Mr. Lang; it contains a large number of powers, some being made by combinations; it has two mirrors, which can be very readily changed, and is exceedingly neat and handy; it costs, however, 4*l.* 15*s.*, and is therefore not available for the majority of students.

A very good instrument for refraction and other purposes is represented in fig. 106. Its cost is 2*l.* 5*s.* It consists of a disc (fig. 2) containing two series of spherical lenses; one convex—1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 dioptres; the other concave—1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 15 dioptres. The disc is milled at the edge, as shown at B (fig. 1), and is made to revolve to the right or left by means of two other milled discs, one of which, A, is worked by the index finger of the hand holding the instrument. A sector (fig. 3) of a similar disc is placed behind this for occasional use. It contains spherical lenses of +0·5 D., +12 D., and −0·5 D., −20 D., and can be moved to right or left by the index finger of the hand holding the instrument by moving the knob F (fig. 1). The power of the lens in use belonging to the disc is shown at C. The power of the lens belonging to the sector is shown at D. The change of each lens is indicated by an audible click. A small mirror (fig. 4) and (fig. 1, E) of 8 cm. focal length, is attached by means of a universal joint, so that it can be placed at any angle. This can be substituted by a mirror of larger size and greater focal length when required for the indirect method.

There are two methods of using the ophthalmoscope—the *direct* and the *indirect*. Each of these has advantages of its own, and neither of them should be practised to the exclusion of the other. Before passing to a detailed description of these, there are certain practical points common to both of them which must claim our attention.

In the first place an artificial source of light is necessary; sunlight, it is true, can be employed, but there are obvious inconveniences which practically preclude its use. Any steady broad flame will answer the purpose, a circular gas-burner, such as an Argand, being the best. It is convenient to have it affixed to a bracket, which allows of free movement both in a vertical and in a horizontal plane; and a shade by which lateral rays can be arrested is sometimes useful. The lamp must be placed on the same horizontal plane as the eye, sufficiently far back to prevent any direct rays falling on the

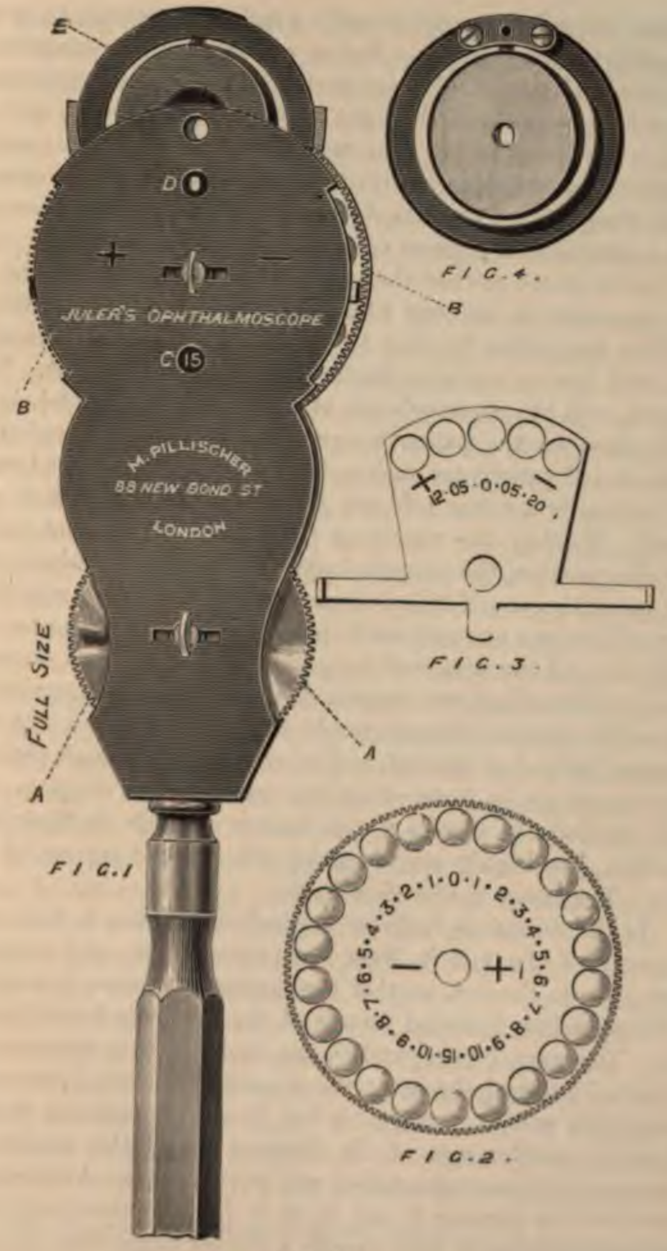
E
D
+
−
JULER'S OPHTHALMOSCOPE
C 15
B
B
M. PILLISCHER
88 NEW BOND ST
LONDON
FULL SIZE
A
A
FIG. 1
FIG. 4.
+ 12·05·0·05·20 −
FIG. 3.
− 0 +
2·1·0·1·2·3·4·5·6·7·8·9·10·15·10·9·8·7·6·5·4·3
FIG. 2.

Fig. 106.

cornea, and only removed laterally a sufficient distance to avoid discomfort from its heat. Before commencing to examine a patient, the knack should have been acquired of so manipulating the mirror as to throw the light on any required spot, and to keep it there during any movements of the head; this is easily learnt with a little practice, but the want of that practice causes much disappointment at the first trial with the ophthalmoscope, and a considerable amount of discomfort to the patient.

In the direct method the surgeon sits facing the patient on the same side as the eye which is to be examined, in such a position that, when his face is brought close to the patient's, his own eye is opposite the same eye of the patient. The mirror, with the observer's eye close behind the sight-hole, is held close to the patient's eye. If the relative position of surgeon and patient are such as have been described, the former will naturally use the left eye for the patient's left, and *vice versâ*. Holding the mirror as close as he can without losing the illumination, the surgeon looks through the sight-hole into the patient's eye; if this is emmetropic, the parallel rays from it enter his own eye and are focussed on his retina; he accordingly sees all the details of the patient's fundus. It is essential that neither patient nor surgeon should use any accommodation, for in the one case the rays would leave the patient's eye convergent instead of parallel, and in the other, although parallel, they would not be focussed on the retina of the surgeon. By this method the details of the fundus are seen in their true position, but highly magnified by the dioptric system of the eye. The image is therefore *erect*.

In the second or *indirect* method the mirror is held at a distance of about 2 ft. from the patient's eye, and a convex lens close to the eye, so that the emerging rays are brought to a focus, and an *inverted image* of the fundus is formed in the air. The rays, being parallel, are brought to a focus at the principal focus of the lens; the more distant this is, the more magnified will the image be, but it will represent a proportionately smaller area of the fundus; hence, the weaker the lens used, the more magnified will be the image. A convenient lens for this purpose is one of 13 D. (3 in.); those sold with the ophthalmoscope have usually a shorter focus than this, and do not magnify sufficiently. The larger its diameter, within convenient limits, the better; a good size for the pocket is 2 in. diameter.[1] The image obtained by this method is *inverted* and *real*, while the direct gives an *erect* and *virtual* image. By the indirect method a large portion of the fundus can be seen at one time, and it is therefore the best for obtaining a general view of the fundus, and should be used first in every case. The direct gives more detailed information concerning a smaller area at one time.

There are several difficulties to be overcome in using the direct method; the first is that of getting sufficiently close to the eye without losing the illumination; this is, however, easily accomplished if the manipulation of the mirror has been previously learnt. If the patient's eye be directed straight forward, a difficulty sometimes arises from the reflection of the mirror being seen in the cornea; this is avoided if the eye be directed a little to the nasal side, and this position has the additional advantage that the posterior pole of the eye is rotated outwards, so that the optic disc, which lies slightly to the inner side, comes into view. We have seen that accommodation on the part of either surgeon or patient prevents a clear view being obtained of an emmetropic fundus; on the part of the patient this can generally be obviated by taking care that the other eye has no light falling on it, and that it is directed to a distant object. The surgeon's own accommodation is a more difficult matter to control; some idea of the difficulty, and of the kind of effort required to overcome it, can be obtained by attempting to read through a convex lens a page of print placed at its focal distance; at first this will be found to be difficult, but the knack can be acquired with a little practice. When using the ophthalmoscope, it is well to try to imagine that one is looking at a distant object, and this is facilitated by the other eye being kept open. The small size of the pupil will not often prove an obstacle to the examination of the optic disc if the above precautions be adopted, but it frequently prevents a view being obtained of other parts of the fundus. The pupil contracts less if a plane mirror be used, and still less with an ophthalmoscope on the principle of Helmholtz's. The use of a mydriatic is, however, often necessary or advisable.

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[1] Such lenses can be obtained at Messrs. Pickard and Curry's, 195 Great Portland Street. Price 5*s*.

The small size of the pupil is a more serious obstacle to the indirect method, owing to the greater concentration of the light; and here the use of a mydriatic is more frequently necessary. The chief difficulty in this method lies in manipulating the lens and mirror at the same time. The best plan is to throw the light on the eye first with the mirror alone, then to interpose the lens, holding it at a little less than its own focal distance from the patient's eye; the head must then be moved backwards and forwards, care being taken not to lose the red reflex, until the details of the fundus are clearly seen. If any trouble arises from an image of the flame or mirror being seen reflected in the lens, a very slight rotation of it on its vertical axis throws the image out of the way.

In order to see any peripheral part of the fundus with the direct method the patient must be told to look in the corresponding direction—e.g. upwards for the upper part of the fundus, downwards for the lower. With the indirect method it should be borne in mind that the image moves in the same direction as the lens, and in the reverse direction to the surgeon's head; by a combined movement, therefore, in opposite directions, of lens and mirror, the part of the fundus which is visible may be changed at will.

Section V.—Methods of Estimating Refraction.

We are now in a position to consider the various modes of estimating the exact refraction of the eye; these are very numerous, but they mostly come under one of two heads: either they are *subjective* in character—that is, they depend on the visual sensations of the patient—or they are *objective*, and depend on what the surgeon himself observes. The subjective methods for the most part, though not entirely, are founded on changes made in the patient's vision by glasses. Such a method has the obvious disadvantage that the results depend on the statements of the patient, who may be stupid or ignorant; on the other hand, with an intelligent subject it is often the quickest, and as the object of the examination is usually to ascertain what is the most suitable glass, its results are more appreciated by the patient. Some methods combine both the subjective and objective principles, and few surgeons care to rely upon either exclusively in a difficult case.

(i.) **Testing by trial lenses.**—At the outset the reader is again reminded that a perfectly emmetropic eye has clear retinal images of distant objects *without the use of any accommodation*, and a glass does not correct an ametropic eye (i.e. neutralise its ametropia) unless it places it in this condition.

If the reader has followed what has already been said concerning myopia and hypermetropia, he will often be able to form a correct opinion in a given case, from the patient's description of the symptoms, as to which of these errors is the more likely to be present; it will be better, however, for the present to disregard the symptoms altogether, and to suppose the diagnosis to be made entirely by means of the test glasses.

The patient should be placed at a distance of 6 m. (20 ft.) from Snellen's test types, and it should be ascertained what is the smallest line which can be read by the eye under examination—it is, of course, essential that the other eye should be covered—and the result should be noted in the manner described on p. 328. It is a good plan now to test the near vision with the reading types, not because it is always, or even generally, essential for ascertaining the refraction, but because it may be required for this or for other purposes, and if not done at this stage is apt to be forgotten. In noting the near vision, the smallest type should be found which the patient can read, choosing his own distance, and then the farthest and the nearest point at which he can see it.

Example.—R[1] $V=\frac{6}{9}$ and 0·5 Sn.[1] 20–50 cm.[2] [8″–20″].

If distant vision is found to be normal, it does not follow that the eye is emmetropic, unless it can be proved that no accommodation was used; *myopia, however, is excluded.*

The distant vision having been noted, a weak convex lens (+0·50 D.) is placed before the eye; the subsequent steps of the test will depend on the effect which this has on vision; these will therefore be considered under two separate headings.

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[1] The letters R and L are used throughout to indicate the right and left eye respectively. Sn indicates Snellen's reading types, and J those of Jaeger.

[2] It is more consistent with the plan on which these tests are arranged, that the metrical notation should be maintained throughout, but the result may be expressed in inches if preferred.

A. Vision is not *rendered worse by a weak convex lens.*

B. Vision is *rendered worse by it.*

A. If distant vision is not impaired by a convex lens, *hypermetropia* is present; for the effect of the lens is to render the parallel rays convergent, and only a hypermetropic eye can focus converging rays (*vide* p. 336). The strength of the lens should now be gradually increased until the strongest is found which the patient can bear without vision being made any worse; an amount of hypermetropia corresponding at the least to this must be present. The error thus discovered is called the *manifest hypermetropia* (M.H.).

Example.—Supposing that vision of $\frac{6}{9}$ is changed to $\frac{6}{6}$ by the addition of +1·5 D., and that a stronger glass impairs vision, the result is written thus:

$$L\ V=\frac{6}{9}+1{\cdot}50\ \mathrm{D.}=\frac{6}{6},$$

therefore 1·50 = the manifest hypermetropia. In the same way, if vision remained the same with the addition of a convex glass, the glass would be the measure of the manifest hypermetropia, and the result might be written thus:

$$L\ V=\frac{6}{6}+2\ \mathrm{D.}=\mathrm{M.H.}$$

We saw, however, on p. 337 that hypermetropia may be concealed by the action of the accommodation; and having found the *manifest* hypermetropia by the above method, we have no guarantee that a further amount does not still remain concealed by the accommodation. As a matter of fact, in young subjects this is usually the case, for having constantly to accommodate in order to see, the act is performed instinctively as soon as an effort is made to look attentively at an object; and although, by a very gradual transition from the weaker to the stronger glasses, the accommodation can be coaxed to relax to a certain extent, some frequently remains in use concealing some hypermetropia, which is therefore said to be *latent.* It is of course possible that the whole of the hypermetropia may be latent, so that the fact that a weak convex lens renders vision worse does not necessarily exclude the existence of hypermetropia. But it is rare, except in children, for all the hypermetropia to be latent; in patients over thirty, on the other hand, it is unusual for any to be latent. If the patient's 'near-point' is farther away than it should be at his age (see table, p. 325), hypermetropia may be suspected to exist, although none may be manifest.

Not only may the action of the ciliary muscle entirely conceal the existence of hypermetropia, but it sometimes passes into a condition of tonic contraction in excess of that required for distant vision, so that the eye is maintained in a condition of accommodation for a near point. As this spasmodic contraction cannot be voluntarily relaxed, the eye appears to be shortsighted. This *spasm of the accommodation* undergoes a partial, and sometimes a complete relaxation in the dark, so that by examination with the ophthalmoscope in the dark room, the apparent myopia may be proved to be fictitious, or the existence of hypermetropia be diagnosed.

In order to ascertain with certainty the amount of latent hypermetropia it is necessary to paralyse the accommodation. There are several agents, called mydriatics, by which this can be temporarily accomplished. The commonest of these is Sulphate of Atropia. A solution in water of the strength of 1 per cent. (4 grs. to the oz.) is the best for the purpose, and it should be dropped into the eye, if complete paralysis of the accommodation is required, three times a day for about three days. In young children, owing to the greater strength of the accommodation in them, it is often necessary to use it for a week or more. In addition to the paralysis of the accommodation the pupil is widely dilated, and the effect does not fully pass off for a week or ten days after the last application.

Owing to the serious inconvenience that a patient suffers from the slow recovery of the function of accommodation after atropine, other agents have been employed as mydriatics whose action is less lasting. The sulphates of daturin and duboisin act efficiently, but, although the effect lasts only about half as long as that of atropine, it is long enough to cause serious inconvenience. Duboisin, moreover, has the further disadvantage that it occasionally causes vertigo and even delirium; hence these drugs are seldom used except when atropine, as occasionally happens, causes conjunctival irritation.

A much more useful agent is the hydrobromate of homatropine, as its effect entirely passes off in twenty-four hours, and generally in a much shorter time. Whether it can be relied upon in children, and in cases of spasm of the accommodation, to produce complete paralysis, is a point which more extended experience is needed to determine. It is, however, quite efficient, in ordinary cases, if used of a strength of 1½ p.c. (6 grs. to the oz.) and at short intervals. As the effect is so transient, it is probably useless to prescribe its use for several days; the best plan is to let the patient use it three times on the morning of his visit, at intervals of half an hour, and for the surgeon to apply it every ten minutes during the hour preceding examination.

The effect of a mydriatic on a hypermetrope is to render his distant vision worse. The eye being under the influence of atropine, the hypermetropia is again tested by convex lenses until the one is found which gives the best result; this should be at least as good as that obtained before the use of atropine.

$$\textit{Example}: \textit{Date } L.V. = \frac{6}{9} + 1{\cdot}50 = \frac{6}{6}$$

$$\textit{Date } (\text{Atrop}^{\text{d}})\ L.V. = \frac{6}{24} + 2{\cdot}50 = \frac{6}{6}.$$

In this case the manifest Hypermetropia is 1·5 D., and the *total* 2·5 D., the amount of *latent* H. therefore is 1 D.

If vision is improved by convex lenses up to a certain point, but not to the normal standard, Compound Hypermetropic Astigmatism (see p. 340) may be suspected to be present. If the result obtained by convex lenses is not as good as that which was obtained before atropine was used, Astigmatism is almost certainly present.

B. **Convex lenses render vision worse.**—(a) *Distant vision is normal.*—The condition cannot be Myopia, but may be (i.) Emmetropia; (ii.) Latent Hypermetropia.—Latent Hypermetropia may be suspected if the patient is under thirty, if the symptoms are those of hypermetropia (see p. 336), and if the near-point is farther away than it should be at the patient's age. The diagnosis can generally be established by the ophthalmoscope (see p. 363). If these symptoms are absent, and if the ophthalmoscope fails to discover any hypermetropia, we may assume that the eye is Emmetropic. If, however, symptoms are present and persist, it is often advisable to paralyse the accommodation; if distant vision is then still normal, the eye is emmetropic; if it is impaired, hypermetropia is present; and the amount must be ascertained in the manner already described.

(b) *Distant vision is subnormal.*—The condition is either (i.) Myopia (or spasm of the accommodation) or (ii.) Astigmatism.

(i) *Distant vision is improved by concave lenses.*—Near vision is good—i.e. 0·50 Sn. can be read fluently; the near-point is nearer than corresponds with the patient's age, Myopia is present.

Spasm of the accommodation may cause an eye to resemble myopia in all respects; indeed, an eye under such circumstances is to all intents and purposes myopic for the time; spasm sufficient to produce this condition rarely occurs, however, in children, and, if the accommodation be paralysed by the use of atropine—and in children it is always safer to do this—the true refraction of the eye can be ascertained.

If concave lenses bring distance up to the normal standard, the case is one of myopia only. If vision is improved, but not to the normal standard, the case is one of Compound Myopic Astigmatism[1] (see below, under ii.).

Before endeavouring to find the lens which corrects the myopia, the *far-point* should be ascertained; this is done by finding the smallest of the reading types which the patient can read (which in uncomplicated myopia is 0·50 Snellen), and then ascertaining what is the greatest distance at which he can read it. For example:

$$V = \text{less than } \frac{6}{60}, \text{ \& 0·50 Sn. at 20 cm. (pr.)}$$

In *high degrees* of myopia, however, the 'far-point' cannot be accurately determined in this manner. For, owing both to the nearness of the type, and the length of the eye, the retinal images are so large that their form can be recognised, even when they are not accurately focussed. Hence the letters of 0·50 Sn. can sometimes be read, even when placed *beyond* the patient's far-point. On the other hand, if, as is frequently the case, there are morbid changes in the fundus, which have lowered the visual acuity, the patient may find it necessary to hold the type at a *shorter distance* than the true 'far-point' of the eye.

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[1] Assuming, of course, that the defective vision is due to an error of refraction; it must be remembered, however, that morbid changes in the fundus are very frequently met with in Myopia.

The focus of the correcting lens should coincide with the far-point of the eye, so that parallel rays will be rendered as divergent as they would be if they came from the far-point. (See fig. 107.) They will therefore be focussed on the retina without any accommodation being used, and distant objects will therefore be seen under the same conditions as in emmetropia. A stronger lens will render the rays more divergent; but, as they can still be focussed on the retina if the accommodation is called into play, vision is not necessarily rendered worse. Hence the *weakest* concave lens which gives the best vision is the glass to be chosen.

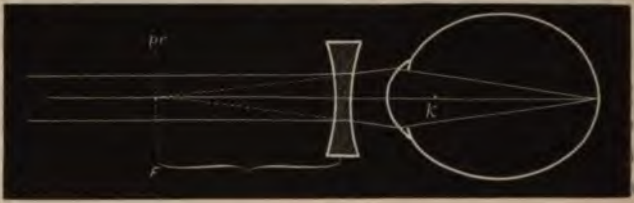

FIG. 107.

Example:

$$L.V. = \text{less than } \frac{6}{60},\ \&\ 0{\cdot}50 \text{ Sn. at } 20 \text{ cm. (pr.) } \bar{c} - 5 \text{ D},\ V = \frac{6}{6}.$$

If a concave lens improves vision, but does not bring it up to normal standard, and there are no other morbid conditions, the case is one of Compound Myopic Astigmatism.

(ii.) *Distant vision is not improved by concave lenses.*—The case is probably one of Simple, or Mixed Astigmatism. Astigmatism is also present when the distant vision cannot be brought up to the normal standard by spherical lenses. (See above, under i.)

If vision is at all improved by spherical lenses, the one which produces the greatest improvement should be put in the trial frame in front of the eye, and the patient tested with a revolving line. For this purpose Carter's *Astigmatic Clock* is extremely useful. It consists of a clock dial, in which the hands are replaced by three parallel lines revolving about the centre; the lines should be of the thickness of the strokes of the lowest letters of the distance types, and should be separated by spaces of the same width. It is convenient to have, in addition to the dial with one set of lines, another with two sets at right angles to each other in the form of a cross.

If the lines, when revolved, are seen equally clearly in all positions, there is no astigmatism present. If there is a difference, the position in which they are best seen, and the position at right angles to this, will indicate the direction of the *principal meridians*. The meridian in which they are most clearly seen indicates the one in which there is the greatest error (see p. 341), while the meridian at right angles to this is either emmetropic or requires the least correction.

The 'principal meridians' having been found in this way, the one in which the error of refraction is least should be tested alone, by shutting off the others by means of the stenopaïc slit. This having been placed in front of the eye in the best meridian, the spherical lens is found which gives the best vision, and which may therefore be assumed to correct this meridian; to make the other meridian equal to it, the slit must be removed, and cylinders added to the spherical lens, with their axes in the direction of the corrected meridian, until the lines are seen with equal clearness in both positions. It is here that the crossed lines are useful, as the patient is the better able to compare them when seeing them both at the same moment; they also obviate a difficulty which sometimes arises from the patient using a different amount of accommodation for the two positions, and therefore, seeing the lines equally well, although the refraction of the corresponding meridians of his eye may be different. In most cases of astigmatism, however, it is advisable to paralyse the accommodation.

As soon as the lines have been made to appear equal, the astigmatism—i.e. the difference between the refraction of the principal meridians—has been corrected; it only remains to see if vision is improved by a slight alteration in the spherical lens.

A convenient way of noting the result is as follows: the slit is indicated by the letter S, and its direction by the line drawn through it. The three parallel lines indicate that they were seen best in the position depicted, while the crossed lines show that the difference has been corrected. (The positions of the slit and of the axis of the cylindrical lens are noted as they appear to the surgeon looking at the patient, and that of the lines as they appear to the patient; the apparent discrepancy is not a real inconvenience, and it will be found on the whole the most satisfactory notation.)

Example:

$$R.V. = \frac{6}{60}\ \bar{c} + 2{\cdot}50 = \frac{6}{18},\ \&\ \equiv \qquad \cancel{S}\ c + 2{\cdot}0 = \frac{6}{9}$$

$$+2{\cdot}0 \text{ sp. } \bar{c} + 1{\cdot}5 \text{ cyl. } \underset{75^\circ\ d\ \&\ o}{|} \qquad = \frac{6}{6} \text{ and } \#$$

Occasionally cases are met with in which the astigmatism appears to be corrected by every test, and vision is brought up almost to the normal standard, and yet the lines are not seen equally well, and no glass makes them equal. Such cases show the importance of not trusting to one test alone.

For the vision of an astigmatic eye to be improved by spherical lenses it is essential that the nature of the error of the refraction in the two principal meridians should be the same (Compound Hypermetropic or Compound Myopic Astigmatism). If spherical lenses do not improve vision, the astigmatism is Simple (myopic or hypermetropic) or Mixed. In either case, the lens which tends to correct the one meridian renders the other worse.

If—the accommodation being paralysed—the revolving lines are seen quite clearly in one direction, while vision is normal when the stenopaïc slit is placed in the meridian at right angles to this, the astigmatism is Simple, and all that is necessary is to place cylindrical lenses in front of the eye, with their axes in the direction of the emmetropic meridian, until the lines are seen equally well.

If the lines are not clearly seen in any position, and near and distant vision are both defective, while the latter is not improved by spherical lenses, the defect is due to Mixed Astigmatism, if to any error of refraction at all. It is very tedious to work out mixed astigmatism by the aid of the trial lenses alone; and it can be so quickly and accurately done by the 'shadow test,' that it will be better to postpone its further consideration till we treat of that test.

ii. **Other subjective tests.**—There are other subjective tests for astigmatism, some of which it will be well to mention briefly. Various instruments, called Optometers, have been devised for the purpose of facilitating the estimation of the refraction; most of these consist essentially in an arrangement, more or less ingenious, by which lenses of various powers and in different combinations can be rapidly placed in succession in front of the eye which is to be examined, the test object being Snellen's types; these require no further description here. The distinctive feature of others is the nature of the test object: thus in *Tweedy's Optometer* they consist of a series of radiating lines on a clock dial, sliding on a graduated bar (fig. 108); the eye, if not already myopic, is rendered so by a convex lens, so that the further extremity of the bar lies within the

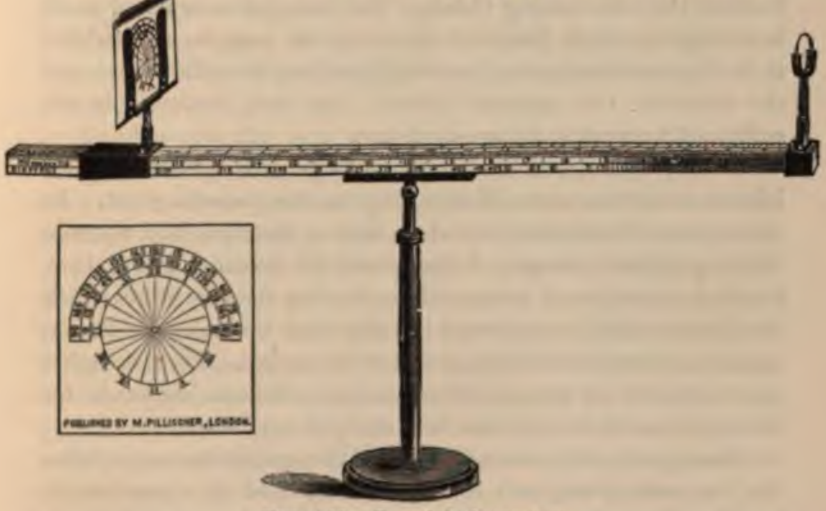
PUBLISHED BY M. PILLISCHER, LONDON.

FIG. 108.—Tweedy's Optometer.

patient's range of vision. The dial is then gradually approximated, and the distance noted at which one of the radiating lines is seen; by comparing the corresponding number on the graduated bar, and the lens in front of the eye, the refraction of the meridian at right angles to the line seen can be calculated. In the same way the refraction of the other principal meridian is ascertained, and the glass found which renders all the lines equally distinct.

An attempt was made a few years ago to utilise the principle of a very old test known as *Scheiner's*. This depends on the fact that an Emmetropic eye, looking at a point of light through two minute apertures, placed close together, sees the point singly, because the rays which pass through each aperture meet at the same point on the retina; but an Ametropic eye under the same circumstances sees the point *reduplicated*, because the rays coming through the two apertures would meet in a single point in front of the retina in myopia, and behind it in hypermetropia, and would, therefore, in either case, cut the retina in two separate places; the test, however, is not sufficiently accurate for practical use.

Thompson's ametrometer is an ingenious instrument, but labours under the same disadvantage as the preceding test. In it two small flames are looked at from a distance, and the size of the projected images of the circles of diffusion which they form on the retina is measured by finding the extent to which the flames must be separated in order that their images should appear to touch each other, but not to overlap. The two lights can be placed in any meridian, and the calculation made for the meridian of the eye which is at right angles to it.

Among objective tests the use of the ophthalmoscope takes the foremost place, and it may be employed in several ways; but they have this feature in common, that the result depends on the direction given by the refracting media of the eye to the rays which are reflected from the retina, these rays being, as we have seen, *parallel* in Emmetropia, *convergent* in Myopia, and *divergent* in Hypermetropia.

iii. **Testing by Direct Ophthalmoscopic Examination.**—This test was very warmly advocated by Mr. Couper some years ago, when objective tests were little used, and has been extensively practised by him and others; as an approximate test it is exceedingly useful, and its employment should be practised by everyone. To render it an accurate test requires considerable experience, and even with this it is in most hands inferior to some other methods, at any rate in astigmatism.

An ophthalmoscope containing a series of convex and concave lenses is necessary, and the surgeon must be able to relax his own accommodation. We have seen that in emmetropia the rays from the fundus are parallel on leaving the eye, and that therefore they are focussed on the surgeon's retina (if his accommodation is relaxed) when his eye is placed close behind the sight-hole of the mirror, and when the latter is held close to the eye under examination. If the rays coming from the eye are parallel, as in emmetropia, a convex lens will render them convergent, and they can then be no longer focussed by the observer's eye. Hence—

In Emmetropia the fundus is clearly seen without any lens behind the mirror, and a convex glass renders the image blurred.

In *Myopia* the rays are *convergent* on leaving the eye, hence the fundus cannot be seen by an emmetropic eye until they have been rendered parallel by a concave lens. The weakest concave lens, which makes the details of the fundus clear, is the measure of the myopia—provided of course that neither the patient nor surgeon is using his accommodation; if a stronger lens is used, the rays are rendered divergent, and can then only be focussed by the surgeon using his accommodation; this, however, is done instinctively, and by most people unconsciously, so that the fundus is still clearly seen with a concave lens much stronger than that required to correct the myopia. It follows from what has been said that—

In Myopia the fundus can only be seen by using a concave lens, and the weakest concave glass with which it can be seen is the measure of the Myopia.

In *Hypermetropia*, the patient's accommodation being relaxed, the rays leave the eye *diverging*; a clear view of the fundus can therefore be obtained only by the surgeon using his accommodation. Most people are unconscious of the act of accommodation, and therefore, seeing the fundus clearly, may think that the eye is emmetropic; but if a convex glass be now placed behind the mirror, the accommodation partially relaxes, and the fundus is still clearly seen. It follows therefore that—

The fundus of a Hypermetropic eye can be seen with a convex lens; and the strongest convex lens with which it can be clearly seen is the measure of the hypermetropia.

To recapitulate.—The patient's accommodation, and that of the surgeon, being relaxed.—If the fundus is clearly seen *without any lens* behind the mirror, the case may be one of *Emmetropia* or *Hypermetropia*, but cannot be Myopia. If a convex lens renders the image blurred it is *Emmetropia*, if it remains distinct it is *Hypermetropia*. If the fundus can *only* be clearly seen *with a concave lens* it is *myopia*.

The weakest concave lens is the measure of the myopia.

The strongest convex lens is the measure of the hypermetropia.

In *Astigmatism* the disc appears to be of an oval shape, and the vessels which run in different directions are viewed under different conditions (see figs. 1 and 2 on the opposite page); thus, supposing the eye to be emmetropic in the horizontal meridian, and myopic in the vertical, the vertical vessels will be clearly seen, but the horizontal will require a concave lens to render them distinct. This follows from what was said in p. 339, for since the rays from any point on the retina which come out through the horizontal meridian are parallel, they are focussed on the observer's retina, and by the rule there given a vertical linear image of the point will be formed on the observer's retina; if now a vertical vessel be looked at, it is seen clearly, because all its points form elongated vertical images which overlap one another; the horizontal vessel, on the contrary, looks blurred, because the images of its points are elongated, not in the direction of its length, but across it; but if a concave lens is placed behind the mirror of such a strength as to bring the rays coming through the vertical (myopic) meridian to a focus on the retina, the horizontal vessels will be clearly seen.

Hence we get this rule for the estimation of astigmatism:

The refraction of either principal meridian can be ascer-

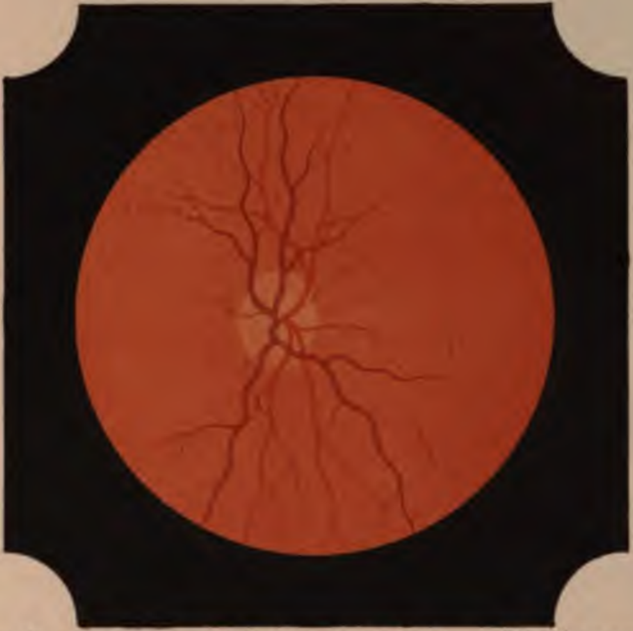

Fig. 1. Appearance of disc in astigmatism (Direct image.)

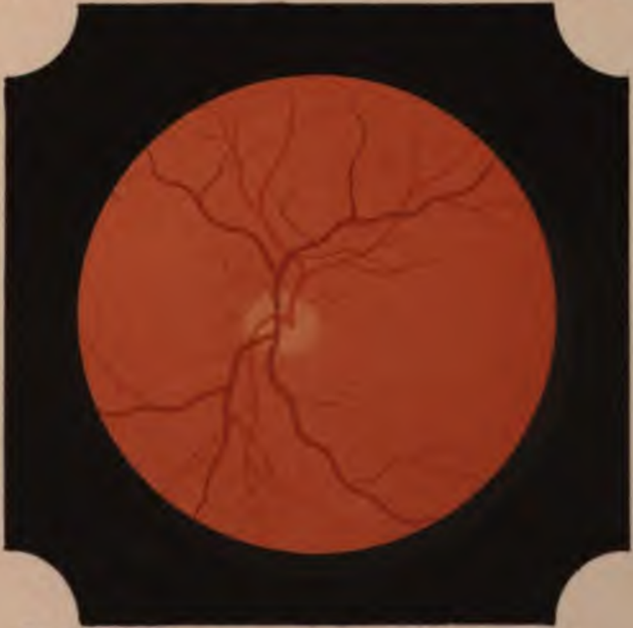

Fig. 2. Optic disc in astigmatism (Indirect image.)

[illegible] & CO

tained by finding the weakest concave or strongest convex lens, with which the vessels whose course is at right angles to that meridian can be seen.

With practice it is possible to estimate astigmatism with great accuracy by this method in most cases, but there are several difficulties. On the disc itself vessels can usually be found running in several directions, but the refraction of the region of the *yellow spot*, and not that of the optic disc, is what is required, and in the region of the macula there are but few vessels to be found, and these frequently do not lie in the principal meridians. Mr. Tempest Anderson has endeavoured to remove this difficulty by an ingenious apparatus by which an image of fine wires radiating from a common centre is thrown on the retina, those of the lines which correspond to the principal meridians of refraction being used as test objects.

iv. **Testing by the Indirect method of Ophthalmoscopic Examination.**

In Emmetropia the image remains of the same size, whatever is the distance of the lens from the observed eye.

In Myopia the image enlarges as the lens is withdrawn from the eye.

In Hypermetropia it diminishes.

In Astigmatism the shape of the disc appears to change as the lens is withdrawn; when the latter is close to the eye, the disc appears oval, the long diameter corresponding to the meridian of least refraction (which is the reverse of what occurs in the direct method); as the lens is withdrawn the relative size of the diameters changes until the long axis corresponds with the meridian of greatest refraction.

v. **Testing with mirror alone, held at a distance.**—(a) *Fundus-Image Test.* (b) *Retinoscopy.*—In addition to the methods of using the ophthalmoscope already described, the two following are very useful in estimating refraction; in both the ophthalmoscopic mirror alone is employed, and is held at a considerable distance from the eye. The first of these may be called the 'Fundus-Image' test; the other has been called 'Retinoscopy,' but would be more appropriately designated by some such term as 'Shadow Test.'

(a) *Fundus-Image Test.*—If the mirror be held at a considerable distance from an *Emmetropic* eye no image of any details of the fundus is seen, but only a red reflex; this is because only the very minute point of the fundus is seen which lies on the axis along which light is reflected into the eye, for the rays from any other point on the fundus form a pencil of rays parallel to the axis on which the point is situated, so that by the time the rays from any two such points have reached the distance at which the observer's eye is placed the two pencils are widely separated (fig. 109).

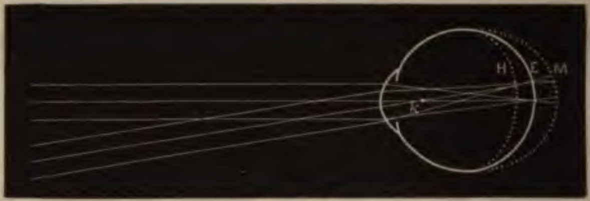

FIG. 109.

In myopia and hypermetropia, however, a portion of the fundus is seen whose extent is in proportion to the degree of ametropia. In *Myopia*, as we have seen, a real inverted image (a' b', fig. 110) of the fundus is formed in the air at the patient's 'far-point,' and, since this is in front of the patient's eye, it appears when the observer's head is carried from side to side to move in the *opposite* direction.

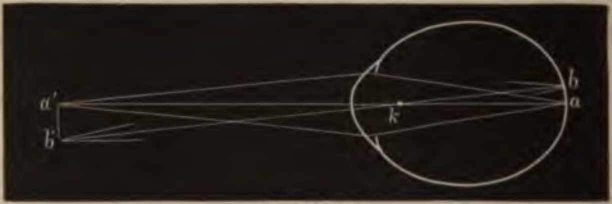

FIG. 110.

In *Hypermetropia* the emerging rays form divergent pencils; hence the image of the fundus is virtual and erect, and is formed behind the patient's eye (see fig. 111), it therefore appears to move in the *same* direction as the observer's head.

Hence we get this rule:

If, while the mirror is held two feet or more from the eye any details of the fundus are seen, the eye is either hyper-

metropic or myopic. If the vessels move in the same direction as the head, it is Hypermetropic; if in the opposite direction, it is Myopic.

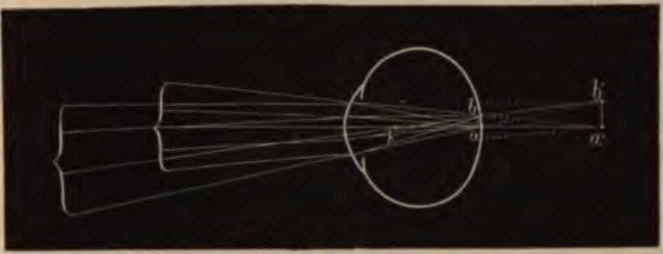

FIG. 111.

(b) *Retinoscopy, or the Shadow Test.*—When light is reflected into an eye from a mirror held at a distance of a little over a metre, and the mirror rotated to and fro on one of its axes, the appearance seen through the sight-hole of the mirror varies with the refraction of the eye.

In one position of the mirror the whole pupil is occupied by a red reflex, but if it be rotated slightly this red reflex shifts its position so that a limited area of the pupil becomes less illuminated, and the appearance presented is that of a shadow creeping a short distance over the pupillary area (fig. 112).

If a concave mirror be used the 'shadow' appears to move in the same direction as the rotation in myopia,[1] and in the opposite direction in hypermetropia.

Before considering how this fact may be utilised as an accurate test, not only of the kind of error, but also of its degree, it would be well to explain the *rationale* of the phenomena.

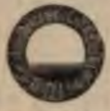

FIG. 112.

When rays of light from a lamp (L, fig. 113) fall on a concave mirror (M_1) they are rendered convergent, and an inverted image of the lamp flame (l_1) is formed in the air a little nearer the patient than the principal focus of the mirror, which should be about 25 cm. If the mirror be rotated in any direction—say downwards—as to M_2 the aërial image of the lamp flame will move in the same direction, as to l_2. If the eye is myopic to such a degree that its 'far-point' coincides with the position of l_1 or l_2, a well-defined image of one of these will be formed on the retina at l'_1 or l'_2, and since the relative position of external objects is inverted on the retina, the lower the aërial image the higher will be that on the retina. In other words, the retinal image of the flame will move in the opposite direction to that of the rotation of the mirror.

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[1] There is one exception to this, which will be noticed presently. (See p. 369.)

In any other state of refraction but that just indicated, no true retinal image of the flame will be formed, but a circular 'diffusion-image.' The size of the latter will vary with that of the pupil, and with the refraction of the eye, but it will in any case occupy only a comparatively small portion of the fundus. Since the size of the dilated pupil is, practically, a fixed quantity, that of the diffusion-image will depend on the extent to which the refraction differs from a myopia with the 'far-point' at the aërial image; the diffusion-image, however, enlarges more rapidly with increasing degrees of myopia than with increasing degrees of hypermetropia, owing to the greater length of the eye in the former case.

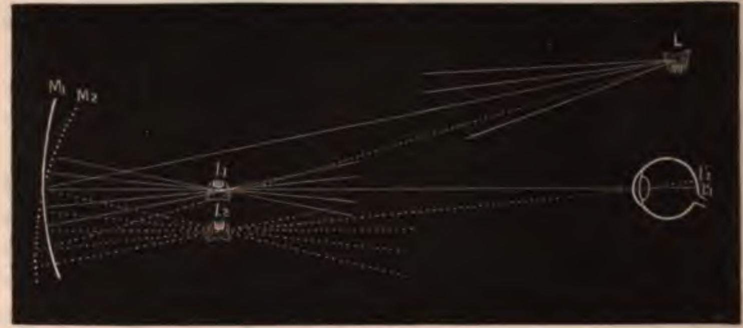

FIG. 113.

It is evident that in any case the movement of the 'diffusion-image' must always be in the opposite direction to that of the rotation of the mirror.[1] Therefore the difference in the appearance in myopia and hypermetropia does not depend on a *real* difference in the direction of movement of the light on the fundus, but on a difference in the conditions under which the fundus is seen, in the two cases. What this difference is the reader will easily see by referring to what has been already said when speaking of the 'fundus-image' test (see p. 364). We then saw that at a distance from the eye an erect image of the fundus is seen in hypermetropia and an inverted image in myopia, while in emmetropia only an infinitesimal portion of the fundus is visible. Hence in hypermetropia the 'diffusion-image' is seen to move in its true direction, i.e. *opposite* to that of the mirror, while in myopia it appears to move in the reverse direction to the actual one, i.e. in the *same* direction as the mirror. The mode of production of the characteristic shadow will be made plain by the following diagrams. Fig. 114 represents a hypermetropic eye, and the degree of hypermetropia is such that a virtual image ($a' b'$) of a portion of the fundus (a b) is visible.

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[1] If a *plane* mirror be used, the retinal image will move in the *same* direction as the mirror, and the appearance will therefore be the reverse of that described in the text.

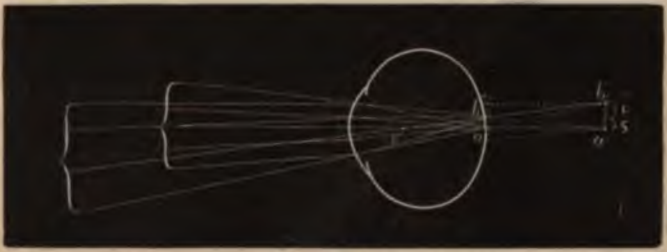

FIG. 114.

For the sake of simplicity we will assume that, in the first position of the mirror, the 'diffusion-image' exactly coincides with a b, therefore the whole of a' b' will be illuminated, and the whole of the pupil appear occupied by a red reflex. Now let the mirror be rotated downwards, so that the 'diffusion-image' no longer coincides with a b, but is shifted upwards to the position indicated by the dotted line; the lower portion of a b, and therefore of a' b', corresponding to s, will now be unilluminated, and therefore appear as a 'shadow,' while the upper part, corresponding to i, will still give the red reflex. Hence the lower part of the pupil will present a 'shadow,' while the remainder will be bright (fig. 115). In other words, the 'shadow' has moved upwards, or in the *opposite* direction to the mirror.

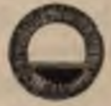

Fig. 115.

In myopia, if the mirror is rotated downwards a different appearance will be produced. Let fig. 116 represent an eye which is myopic to such an extent that an inverted image *a′ b′* of a portion of the fundus, *a b*, is formed. If, as before, the 'diffusion-image' coincides with *a b* in the first position of the mirror, the whole of *a′ b′*, and therefore the whole of the pupil, will appear of a red colour. If the mirror be now rotated downwards so that the 'diffusion-image' is shifted upwards towards *a*, to the position indicated by the dotted line (fig. 116), the part of *a b* nearest to *b* will be now unilluminated, and therefore the portion of the image *a′ b′* nearest to *b′* (corresponding to *s*) will be in shadow, while the remainder (corresponding to *i*) will still give the red reflex; in other words, the shadow has appeared to move downwards, that is, in the *same* direction as the mirror, and the pupil will present the appearance depicted in fig. 117.

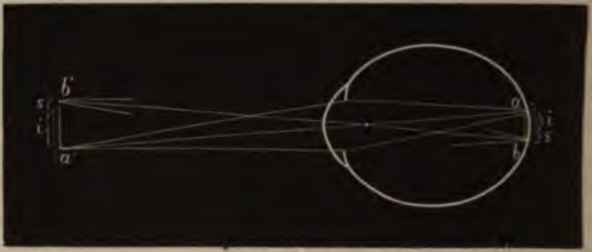

FIG. 116.

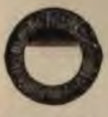

FIG. 117.

Besides the difference in the direction of the shadow, which is due to the *kind* of ametropia, there are differences in the rate of movement and the brightness of the reflex which depend upon its *degree*. The higher the degree of ametropia the larger is the area of fundus seen (see p. 364), but this is proportionately less magnified. Hence, with an equal amount of *real* movement of the light on the fundus, the movement of the 'shadow' will *appear* to be slower in high than in low degrees.

The brightness of the reflex also varies with the degree of ametropia. We have seen that in low myopia (about 1 D.) a well-defined retinal image of the flame is formed; hence in this condition the light is most concentrated on the fundus. In proportion as the refraction differs from this, the larger is the area of the fundus over which the same amount of light is spread, hence the illumination of any given point is proportionately diminished.

The practical bearing of what has been said will be made plain by a few examples.

Example 1.—The reflex is dull, the shadow moves in the opposite direction to the mirror, but only a short distance across the pupil; the case is one of high hypermetropia.

If convex lenses of increasing strength be now placed before the eye, the reflex becomes brighter, the movement of the shadow greater, but its edge less defined; finally, the shadow becomes indistinct, and then, if still stronger lenses are used, it reappears, moving, however, now in the *same* direction as the mirror, and the eye has been rendered *myopic.*

We have seen that the myopic appearance is produced by the inversion of the fundus image, and as this occurs at the far-point of the eye, it can only be seen when the latter is between the patient and observer, and not too near the latter; for this reason a myopia of less than 1 D. cannot therefore be recognised at the distance at which the mirror is usually held, but if the distance be increased a very much smaller amount can be recognised.

There are two ways of estimating the amount of Ametropia by this method; the one is to gradually increase the strength of the lens until the myopic shadow is seen, and then to deduct 1 D. from the lens used. The other is to find the weakest lens which renders the shadow indistinct. After a little practice it will be found that the lens which corrects the ametropia can be found in this way. As the tendency is rather to over-correct hypermetropia by this test, and so render the eye myopic, it is a good plan, as soon as the lens has been found which appears to correct the ametropia, to hold the mirror farther away, and see if there is then a myopic shadow, if so a weaker lens must of course be taken.

Example 2.—The reflex is bright, the shadow moves over a large portion of the pupillary area, and in the opposite direction to the rotation of the mirror.—Hypermetropia of low degree. It is to be corrected as in the preceding example.

Example 3.—The reflex very dull, the shadow moving very slightly, and in the same direction as the mirror. High myopia. Concave lenses should now be placed in front of the eye, their strength being increased until the shadow moves in the opposite direction. A lens a little weaker than this will give the correction.

Example 4.—The reflex is brighter, the shadow moves in the same direction as the mirror and over a large portion of the pupil. Low myopia. Correct as in preceding example.

The great advantage of this test, however, consists in the ease with which it can be applied to the estimation of *astigmatism.* The refraction of any one meridian can be ascertained by noting the movement of the shadow in that meridian. This will be made plain by a few examples.

Example 1.—The mirror being rotated on its vertical axis (so that the light moves transversely on the retina), the emmetropic appearance is seen, while on rotating it on its horizontal axis (so that the light moves vertically on the retina) a shadow is seen to move in the same direction as the mirror. The case is one of Simple Myopic Astigmatism, the horizontal being the emmetropic and the vertical the most myopic meridian. In order to correct the error, we use a concave cylindrical lens with its axis horizontal.

Example 2.—We will now suppose that in testing the horizontal meridian (by causing the light to travel transversely) the shadow moves in the *opposite* direction to that of the mirror, while in the vertical meridian there is no distinct shadow. The case is one of Simple Hypermetropic Astigmatism, and will be corrected by a convex cylinder with its axis vertical.

Example 3.—If in both meridians the movement of the shadow indicates the same *kind* of error, a difference in its *degree* may be suspected if a difference in the rate of movement is noticed. Spherical lenses must now be placed in front of the eye until one is found which renders one meridian emmetropic. If the meridian at right angles to this still remains ametropic the case is one of Compound Astigmatism which has been converted by the spherical lens into one of Simple Astigmatism. This remaining error can be corrected by a cylindrical lens having its axis in the direction of the corrected meridian (as in Examples 1 and 2).

Example 4.—The shadow moves in the same direction as the mirror in one meridian, and in the opposite direction in the other.—The case is one of Mixed Astigmatism. Spherical lenses should now be placed in front of the eye, so as to correct one meridian, thus converting the case into one of Simple Astigmatism.

For instance—a hypermetropic shadow is seen moving in the horizontal meridian, and a myopic in the vertical; convex lenses are used, and it is found that +2 D. renders the horizontal meridian emmetropic. The vertical will, however, have been rendered more myopic, for it was myopic to begin with and +2 D. has been added. To correct the error a concave cylinder must now be used with its axis horizontal, and we know that its strength must be greater than 2 D. If with +2 D. sph. it is necessary to use −4 D. cylinder to correct the vertical meridian, it indicates that this meridian is myopic to the extent of 2 D. (for 2 D. out of the four have been employed in neutralising the vertical meridian of the spherical lens). Another method is to correct each principal meridian with a cylinder; in practice, however, this is less convenient, as it is difficult to insure the axes of the lenses being exactly at right angles to each other.

If the principal meridians are not exactly horizontal and vertical, but slightly oblique, and the mirror is rotated on its horizontal or vertical axis, the edge of the shadow will coincide, not with the axis of rotation of the mirror, but with the nearest principal meridian, and will therefore indicate the direction of the latter; sometimes, however, it is easier to judge of the direction of the movement than of the exact amount of obliquity of the shadow edge.

We have seen that the *real* movement of the light (and therefore of the 'shadow') on the fundus is along a line at right angles to the axis on which the mirror is rotated. Whatever may be the *real* movement, however, it always *appears* to take place in a direction at right angles to the edge of the shadow. This can be illustrated by the simple experiment of passing a card with its edge held obliquely in a horizontal direction across an aperture (as suggested by Dr. Charnley[1]);

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[1] *Oph. Hosp. Rep.* X. iii. p. 364.

it will then be seen that although the real movement of the card is horizontal, its apparent direction is along a line at right angles to its edge.

Hence the direction in which the shadow moves across the pupil depends on the direction of its edge, i.e. of the margin of the diffusion-image formed on the retina. In astigmatism (to simplify the explanation we will here assume that the astigmatism is Simple), the outline of the diffusion-image is not exactly circular but oval, and only those parts of its outline will be clearly seen whose direction coincides with that of the emmetropic meridian. For example, supposing the vertical meridian to be myopic and the horizontal emmetropic (Simple Myopic Astigmatism), then, at the 'far-point' of the myopic (vertical) meridian, there will be formed horizontal linear images of every point on the outline of the diffusion-figure, hence only the horizontal edges will be clearly seen, because here only will the linear images be superposed. So that the edge of the shadow will be horizontal and its movement will be in the vertical meridian whether the mirror be rotated on its horizontal axis or on one which is slightly inclined to the horizontal, and so it will be known that the principal meridians are vertical and horizontal. In the same way if the meridians are oblique the amount of obliquity can be gauged by that of the 'shadow-edge,' and the error of refraction indicated by the direction of its movement, while correction will be given by a cylinder with its axis parallel to the shadow-edge.

The reader will find it helpful to verify the above statements by experiments on the artificial eye (page 323). If the ground-glass retina be used, and the eye viewed from behind, while the light is thrown in through the pupil in the same way as in retinoscopy, the movement of the patch of light on the retina can be seen, and will be found to be in the opposite direction to the rotation of the mirror, however much the eye is shortened or lengthened. (It will be noticed that part of the light is cut off on the side towards which the illuminated patch moves, but this does not affect the explanation.) It will also be seen that a well-defined image of the flame is formed when the eye is slightly myopic, so that its far-point corresponds to the aërial image; but that as the eye is shortened or lengthened the image becomes circular, and increases in size, more rapidly, however, on lengthening than on shortening. Having seen the real movement, the apparent movement is best seen by using the opaque retina; the appearance in different states of refraction, and the effect of correcting them with glasses in the clip, should then be observed. Finally the eye should be made astigmatic by the addition of a cylindrical lens. If the eye have a myopic meridian and the ground-glass retina be used with the light placed behind it, it will be found that the only lines on the fundus which are distinctly seen are those which are at right angles to the myopic meridian, and that these lines (corresponding to the edges of the shadows in the test) can be focussed on a screen placed at the 'far-point' of the myopic meridian. With the opaque retina the appearance seen in the natural astigmatic eye can be closely imitated.

vi. **Other objective tests.**—Among the objective methods of estimating astigmatism must be mentioned the measurement of the curvature of the refracting surfaces of the eye by special instruments. One of the best of these is the Ophthalmometer of Javal and Schiötz. It measures the refraction of the *cornea* only, and both for this reason, and because of its cost, is of value rather as a scientific instrument than as a practical test.

It works on the principle, which is common to most ophthalmometers, of calculating the curvature of the corneal surface from the size of the images of a given object reflected in it. The chief novelty of the instrument consists in the ingenuity with which the difference in the size of the image in the principal meridians of an astigmatic cornea is graphically indicated, so that it can be at once seen how many dioptres of astigmatism it corresponds to.

Since, however, astigmatism of the cornea can be increased, diminished, or neutralised by astigmatism of the crystalline lens, the value of the instrument as a practical test is not very great except in aphakic eyes.

SECTION VI. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The use of mydriatics sometimes entails so much inconvenience on the patient that it is of importance to know in what cases they may be dispensed with.

In myopia the employment of a mydriatic is not as a rule necessary except in the case of young children, or when astigmatism is present.

In patients under twenty with hypermetropia or astigmatism the accommodation should as a rule be paralysed.

In those who are slightly older—say, from twenty to thirty—a mydriatic can often be dispensed with provided that, in the event of the glasses not relieving the symptoms, an opportunity of re-testing can be procured.

After the age of thirty mydriatics are seldom necessary.

No hard and fast line can, however, be laid down, and much will depend on individual circumstances. Thus, if a patient is using the eyes for near vision for many hours daily, as is the case with clerks and needlewomen, a very accurate correction is necessary; if, on the other hand, the eyes are only used for near vision for a short time, an approximate estimation, made without the use of atropine, is sufficient. The fact that a patient has previously worn glasses without relief to the symptoms will also indicate the necessity of a very careful examination.

When the exact refraction of the eyes has been ascertained, the question arises as to whether full correction should be ordered, and whether the glasses should be worn always or only occasionally. In young myopes it is said that the constant wearing of glasses which fully correct the ametropia has a tendency to increase the myopia, and that it is better to give such patients a glass which will enable them to see at their working distance without using any accommodation. That full correction does tend to increase the myopia is a proposition which it is difficult to prove, but the belief is almost universal among German ophthalmic surgeons that such is the case, and their opportunities of forming an opinion are much greater than occur in this country, owing to the greater prevalence of myopia in Germany; hence it is a safe rule in ordering glasses for myopes under fifteen years of age to give two dioptres less than full correction, thus adapting the eye for a distance of twenty inches, and to direct that these should be worn constantly, while the additional two dioptres required for distance may be added in the form of eye-glasses which can be placed in front of the spectacles when accurate distant vision is required.

If, however, the patient has been under observation some months, and there has been no increase in the myopia and no evidence of any thinning of the choroid, full correction may be given.

For low degrees of myopia, less than 3 D., in patients from fifteen to thirty-five full correction may be ordered for all purposes; the difficulty in using the glasses for near vision which is felt at first is soon overcome by practice. After thirty-five the glass which corrects the myopia will not suit for near vision, but since a myope of 3 D. can read at 33 cm. (13 ins.) he does not require glasses for near objects. If, however, such a patient has for several years constantly worn glasses which correct his myopia, he will generally be able to continue using them for all purposes up to the age of forty-five. After this he will require for near vision the addition to his glasses of the presbyopic correction corresponding to his age (see table on p. 325, and p. 377).

In the higher degrees of myopia even young myopes find it irksome or impossible, when their myopia is corrected, to use the amount of accommodation necessary for near vision; not that this is greater than in emmetropia, but in myopia the structural peculiarities of the ciliary muscle, and the fact that it is seldom, or never, called into action, render the effort difficult or painful. In such cases full correction may be given for distance,[1] and for near vision a glass weaker in proportion to the distance for which it is desired to adapt the eyes.

For example.—A myope of 10 D. requires to see at 50 cm. (20 ins.); to enable him to do this a convex lens having this focal length, i.e. +2 D., must be added to the glass which corrects the myopia; in this instance −10 D. adapts the eye for parallel rays, while +2 D. renders the rays which come from a point 50 cm. away parallel. Hence −8 D. will effect the required object.

In ordering glasses for hypermetropia we have to consider whether the patient, having been accustomed to use the accommodation constantly, will be able to completely relax it, as would be necessary for distant vision if full correction were given. A few surgeons do order full correction, but in the case of young subjects it takes a very long time, more patience and perseverance than some possess, for them to get thoroughly accustomed to the glasses, hence it is generally better to deduct something. As to the amount to be subtracted there is a good deal of difference in opinion and practice; some correct all the manifest hypermetropia. Others subtract a constant fraction—usually half of the latent. Others, again, take off a constant amount, as 0·50 or 1·0 D., from the total hypermetropia. A rule which practically works well is to deduct half a dioptre from the total hypermetropia when the glasses are to be worn constantly, and to give full correction when they are only to be worn for near vision. After the age of thirty full correction may always be given.

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[1] Assuming that it is considered safe to give full correction (see above, p. 374).

As to whether glasses should be worn constantly or only occasionally will depend on the circumstances of each case. Theoretically, no doubt, it is best that the ametropia should be kept constantly corrected, but there are often objections on the part of patients and friends to the constant wearing of glasses. Myopes, when supplied with glasses, may generally be left to follow their own inclinations as to the manner of using them. In children with hypermetropia the constant use of glasses should be insisted on, but in adults with hypermetropia of less than 3 D. it is sufficient if the glasses are worn for near vision. In the higher degrees of hypermetropia and in astigmatism of 1 D. or more, they should be worn constantly.

Patients are often very anxious to have eye-glasses prescribed instead of spectacles. When they are only to be used occasionally there is no objection to this provided that there is no astigmatism, but for the latter spectacles are necessary, as it is otherwise difficult to insure the axis of the cylinder being always in the correct position. Up till about the age of forty-five the glass which corrects the eye for distance should theoretically suffice for near vision, and this is actually the case except in myopia of high degree or myopia which is not corrected until after the age of thirty. After forty-five, however, the natural decay of the function of accommodation (presbyopia) removes the near point to an inconvenient distance, and the accommodation has therefore to be supplemented by artificial means. The method of ascertaining the presbyopic correction for the emmetropic eye proper to each age is given in page 326. In ametropia, as a rule, the glass required for near vision is the presbyopic correction, corresponding to the age of the patient, added to the glass which corrects his ametropia.

Examples.—1. A patient aged fifty is hypermetropic to the extent of 1·5 D. The presbyopic correction for the age of 50 is 2 D., he will therefore require for reading $+1{\cdot}5+2=3{\cdot}5$ D.

2. A patient aged fifty-five is myopic to the extent of 1 D. The presbyopic correction is 3 D., therefore he will require for near vision $-1{\cdot}0+3=2$ D.

So that in testing a patient for presbyopia it should first be ascertained whether there is any ametropia and its amount, and the presbyopic correction then added to this.

There are a few practical points with reference to spectacles which should be attended to. It is essential that they should not only be of the proper strength, but that they should be so fitted that each eye looks through the centre of the glass. So that in prescribing spectacles when the patient cannot visit the optician, it is necessary to give the distance from the centre of one pupil to that of the other, and to state whether they are to be worn for distance or for reading &c. Patients often ask whether they should get 'pebbles' or glass. There is not much practical advantage in the former and they are much more expensive; they are lighter and cooler, and may therefore be ordered when the glasses would be of inconvenient weight. In most pebbles, however, the crystal is cut in the wrong direction, and although there may be no flaw visible to the naked eye, such lenses are inferior to glass.

CHAPTER XV.

DISEASES OF THE OCULAR MUSCLES.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY—DIPLOPIA—APPARENT STRABISMUS—PARALYTIC STRABISMUS—CONCOMITANT STRABISMUS—NYSTAGMUS—PARALYSIS OF THE INTRAOCULAR MUSCLES—MYOSIS.

Anatomy and Physiology.—Each eye is acted upon by three pairs of muscles; the muscles of each pair rotate the globe in opposite directions round the same axis; the three axes cut each other in a single point, which remains immovable in all movements, and is therefore called the centre of rotation.

The centre of rotation is situated 13·5 mm. behind the cornea, and therefore rather behind the geometric centre of the globe.

The visual axis or line is the straight line drawn from the yellow spot through the optical centre of the eye; in order that an image may be formed on the yellow spot the object must lie on the visual axis.[1]

The primary position is that in which there is a minimum innervation of the ocular muscles; the head is held erect, the two visual lines are on the same horizontal plane, and are directed straight in front parallel to each other.

The six muscles referred to above are the four recti and the superior and inferior oblique.

All the recti arise from the apex of the orbit; as they pass forward they diverge from one another, forming a hollow cone which includes the globe, and are inserted into the sclerotic at distances ranging from 6·5 to 8 mm. from the corneal margin. The insertion of the internal rectus is most anterior, and that of the superior rectus most posterior.

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[1] The *line of fixation* joins the object looked at and the centre of rotation. As, however, it does not coincide with any axis of the eye, or with the course of any ray, there does not seem to be any practical advantage in retaining the term.

The obliquus superior passes from the apex of the orbit to the upper and inner part of the orbital margin, and there passing through a pulley takes a direction backwards and outwards to be inserted into the upper and outer part of the globe behind the equator.

The obliquus inferior arises from the inner and anterior part of the floor of the orbit; it passes backwards and outwards between the external rectus and the globe, to be inserted into the sclerotic at its upper and outer part behind the equator.

Action of the Ocular Muscles.—The action of any muscle will be best expressed by the direction in which it causes the centre of the cornea to deviate from the primary position.

The following table shows the direction of the axis of rotation and the action of each individual muscle (see fig. 118):

Muscles	Axis of rotation	Action
Sup. Rectus	Horizontal. Inner extremity inclined forwards. Forms angle of 67° with visual line (fig. 118).	Upwards and inwards
Inf. Rectus		Downwards and inwards
Ext. Rectus	Vertical	Outwards
Int. Rectus		Inwards
Sup. Oblique	Horizontal. Outer extremity inclined outwards. Forms angle of 38° with visual line (fig. 118).	Downwards and outwards. Vertical diameter of the cornea inclined downwards and outwards
Inf. Oblique		Upwards and outwards

It is evident that if the superior rectus acts in conjunction with the inferior oblique, the inclination inwards caused by the former muscle will be counteracted by the outward movement of the latter, hence a direct movement *upwards* will result. In the same way, if the inferior rectus and superior oblique act together a *downward* movement is produced. Although in the above table a definite action is assigned to each muscle, it must of course be understood that in all the movements of the eyes, as in those of the limbs, all the muscles are concerned, for they are all in a condition of slight tonic contraction, so that if any one muscle be divided or paralysed, its opponent will cause the eye to deviate, while if they are all divided the globe is rendered perceptibly more prominent.

Innervation of the muscles.—The nerves supplying the muscles of the eye are the third, fourth, and sixth pairs. *The third nerve* (motor oculi) supplies the superior, inferior, and internal rectus, the inferior oblique, the levator palpebræ, the sphincter pupillæ, and the ciliary muscle. *The fourth* (patheticus) supplies the superior oblique. *The sixth* (abducens) supplies the external rectus.

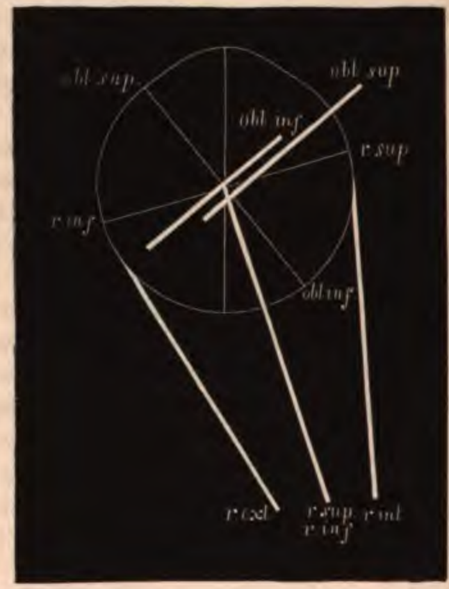

Fig. 118.—Diagram of the attachments of the Muscles of the left Eye and of their Axes of Rotation, the latter being represented by fine lines. The axis of rotation of the rectus externus and internus, being perpendicular to the plane of the paper, cannot be shown. (After Fick.) The thick lines indicate the position of the muscles, the finer lines the axes of rotation.

Associated movements.—All movements of the eyes have for their object the direction of the visual lines to the same point in space; the movements of the two eyes are therefore necessarily associated. Thus in looking upwards or downwards both eyes are moved, and the same muscles called into play in each eye. In looking to the right or left both eyes are moved, but the internal rectus of one is associated with the external rectus of the other. Both the internal recti can, however, be called into action and the eyes rotated inwards, so that the visual lines *converge*. It is important to remember that the act of *convergence* is quite independent of the other conjugate movements; thus, while convergent, the eyes may be moved upwards, downwards, to the right, or to the left, the amount of convergence remaining the same. On the other hand, there may be excessive or deficient convergence without the action of the internal recti for the other conjugate movements being in any way interfered with. Convergence is always associated with contraction of the pupil and the act of accommodation, and in the normal eye the amount of accommodation used bears a definite relation to the amount of convergence. Thus, looking at a distant object neither accommodation nor convergence is used, but in proportion as the object is brought nearer, so the greater is the amount both of convergence and accommodation necessary.

When both the visual lines are directed to the same point, the image of that point falls upon the yellow spot in each eye, and the two retinal images are combined by the mind to form a single visual impression; this is called *binocular vision*.

If, however, while the visual axis of one eye is directed to an object the other *deviates* from this direction, the condition is spoken of as *strabismus*, or *squint*. It is evident that in the deviating eye the image of the object on which the other eye is fixed will fall, not on the yellow spot, but on some other part. Thus, if the eye deviates inwards it will fall to the inner side of the yellow spot, if outwards to its outer side. The mind judges of the position of an object (*projects the image*) by the part of the retina on which the image falls; if on the yellow spot the object is known to be on the visual line, if on the outer side of the yellow spot the object is known to lie to the inner side of the visual line, and so on. Now, in strabismus the mind takes no cognisance of the fact that the eye is deviating, but projects the image as if it were in its true position. Thus, supposing that one eye deviates inwards, the other eye fixes the object; its image, falling on the yellow spot, is projected as lying on the visual axis, and is therefore seen by this eye in its *true* position; but in the squinting eye the image falls to the inner side of the yellow spot, and is therefore projected to a position on the outer side of that which the visual axis would have if the eye were not deviated. Hence two images are seen, a *true* and a *false*, and the displacement of the false image is in the opposite direction to the deviation of the eye.

Thus, in fig. 119, let R be the right eye, and L the left, which deviates inwards. Let C be the centre of rotation,

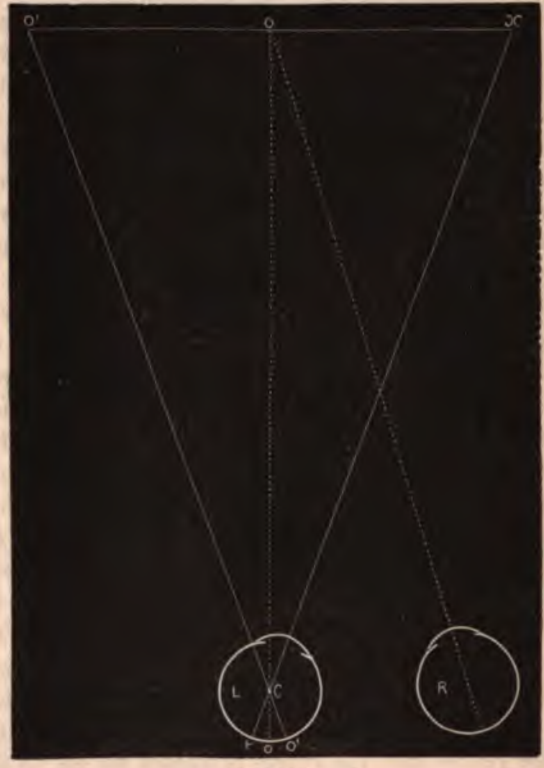

FIG. 119.

Y the yellow spot, and O the object looked at. The yellow spot in the eye R is directed towards the point O; that of the eye L towards x. The image of O, in the left, or deviating eye, instead of being formed at Y, the yellow spot, is formed at O, and the eye L, which judges of the position of exterior objects as if it were in its proper position, projects this image in the direction from which the luminous rays would come, in order that, in a normal position of the eye, the image should be formed at O. To find this last direction we have to suppose the eye L returned to its normal direction so that the visual line, y x, would occupy the position now occupied by o o. Then the yellow spot Y will be at O in front of O′; and O will be displaced at an equal angle, and be found at O′. Now, the object of which o is the image must be on the line which is drawn from the image through the optical centre, i.e. on the line o' o'; therefore the eye when deviating projects the image o in the direction o' o' because this is the direction which the rays would have, if the eye were in its normal position, and the retinal image were at o.

Now, this projection of the object to O′ is on the same side as the deviating eye L, and the diplopia is therefore called *homonymous*.

It will be easily seen that if the eye L had been divergent instead of convergent, the image would have been projected to the opposite side. The anterior part of the eye being thus turned outwards, the posterior part is turned in the opposite direction, and the image of O would then have fallen on the outer side of Y. And since, in the natural state, it is the object situated to the inner side which forms its image on the outer part of the retina, the image is projected in the direction of the nose, that is, to the right of O. Under such circumstances the diplopia is said to be *crossed*.

Hence in any case of strabismus where diplopia is present we have the following rule: *The displacement of the false image is always in the direction which is opposite to that of the deviation of the eye.* Thus, when the eye deviates inwards (convergent strabismus), the diplopia is homonymous; when outwards (divergent), there is crossed diplopia; when upwards the false image is below, when downwards it is above.

Tests for diplopia.—A very simple and ready method of ascertaining the kind of diplopia is to cover the non-deviating eye with a deep red glass by means of a spectacle frame. Then, in a darkened room, we hold a lighted candle about three metres in front of the eyes. The patient will then say that he sees two flames, the one red and the other yellow The red flame is the projection of the image formed upon the eye which has the glass in front of it, the yellow flame belongs to the uncovered eye.

By now interrogating the patient as to the relative positions of the two images, we can ascertain the exact nature of the diplopia. Thus, if the red flame appears on the *same* side as the red glass the diplopia is homonymous and the deviation is *inwards*; if the red flame is on the opposite side the deviation is outwards and the diplopia crossed; if above the deviation is downwards, if below the deviation is upwards; if downwards and inwards the deviation is upwards and outwards; and so on for each of the oblique meridians. By this method we are able to detect all degrees of deviation, but it sometimes happens in slight forms of strabismus that the patient can succeed in uniting the double images for some time, and so sees only one flame. Under such circumstances, we have only to place a prism, base upwards or downwards, in front of one eye. This has the effect of separating the two images vertically, so as to render their fusion impossible, and the patient being unable to correct the vertical diplopia by muscular effort, we can measure the horizontal displacement without difficulty.

Not only the kind but the *degree* of strabismus can be ascertained by this test. *This is directly proportional to the distance between the two images.* It is evident that the distance increases with the degree of the strabismus.

Again, if we direct the patient to follow the light with his eyes, the head being kept at rest, whilst we move the candle in the directions of the various meridians, we find that in paralytic squint the diplopia is increased more in looking in one direction than in another; the distance between the images becomes greater as the eyes are turned in the *direction of the action of the paralysed muscle.*

Again, if we find that during this movement of the eyes in following the flame the distance between the images remains constant, we know that the strabismus is not due to paralysis of an ocular muscle.

Finally, by measuring the actual distance between the images, and the distance of the candle from the eye, it is possible to calculate the angle of the strabismus.

Three chief divisions of strabismus will now be described, viz. *Apparent strabismus*, *Paralytic strabismus*, and *Concomitant strabismus*.

Apparent or false strabismus is the term applied to an apparent convergence or divergence of the eyes which is occasionally observed, but which upon careful examination is found to be due to the angle alpha (p. 321). We are accustomed to judge of the direction of the eyes by the direction of the *optic* axes which pass through the centres of the corneæ; but if the angle alpha is large, and the *visual* axis is directed towards an object, the *optic* axis will then be directed slightly outwards, and so give rise to apparent divergence. This condition is sometimes found in hypermetropia. Again, if the angle alpha is negative the *optic* axis would appear to deviate inwards when the *visual* axis is directed to the object of fixation. Such apparent convergence is sometimes observed in myopia.

To distinguish between apparent and real deviation the patient is directed to look steadily at an object held about a metre from the face. If there is no real strabismus *each* visual line will be directed towards the object, and if either eye is covered the uncovered eye will still see the object without shifting its position. If, on the contrary, there is strabismus, only *one* visual axis will be fixed on the object, and the other will deviate. If the fixing eye be now covered, the deviating eye must be moved in order to see the object, and by the movement we can judge of the extent and direction of the previous deviation.

Paralytic strabismus is that in which deviation of the visual axis is caused by the paralysis or paresis of one or more of the ocular muscles.

Symptoms common to ocular paralyses.—1. The mobility of the affected eye is diminished in the direction of the action of the paralysed muscle, and the field of fixation, if tested by means of the perimeter, is found to present a definite limitation according to the muscle affected.

2. *The primary deviation*—that is, the deviation of the affected eye when the healthy eye fixes—is always less than the *secondary deviation*, that is, the deviation of the good eye when the affected eye fixes.

3. *Diplopia* is generally present. As the eyes are turned in the direction of action of the affected muscle the distance between the images increases, as they are moved in the direction of action of the opponent of the affected muscle the images approach and may coalesce.

4. There is frequently an inclination of the head towards the side of the paralysed muscle.

The cause of the muscular paralysis is usually some lesion of one of the third, fourth, or sixth nerves. This may be *central*, that is, in the region of the brain which corresponds to the deep origin of the nerve affected, or it may be *peripheral*, that is, somewhere in the course of the nerve either within the skull or the orbit. These paralyses may be the result of some tumour or other growth within the orbit, in which case they are accompanied by other symptoms of the local affection. In the majority of cases it is impossible to ascertain the exact position of the lesion. The intimate connection of the nerves with the meninges in the region of the cavernous sinus and sphenoidal fissure renders them peculiarly liable to be affected in meningitis, morbid growths, and syphilitic periostitis in these regions. Aneurism of the internal carotid artery in the cavernous sinus sometimes causes pressure on these nerves. Fracture of the base of skull sometimes affects these ocular nerves either by pressure from the bone or by inflammatory exudation. Symmetrical paralysis of all the ocular muscles (ophthalmoplegia externa) is indicative of syphilitic disease of the nerve centres. It is usually permanent, but occasionally it is evanescent.

Paresis of one or more of the ocular muscles is not a very uncommon precursor of locomotor ataxy.

The muscles most frequently affected separately are the external rectus and the superior oblique. The other recti and the inferior oblique, being supplied by the same nerve, are frequently paralysed together, although separate affections of these are not uncommon.

Paralysis of the sixth nerve.—The external rectus is the muscle affected. Here we find that the outward movement of the globe is limited. Both primary and secondary deviations are inwards. There is homonymous diplopia; the double images are on the same level, and, as there is no torsion of the globe, they are parallel to one another; the distance between them increases when the patient looks towards the side of the eye affected.

The line of separation between the portion of the field of fixation in which there is single vision and that in which there is diplopia is situated obliquely, its lower end being on the healthy side.

The patient's face is often turned towards the affected side.

Paralysis of the fourth nerve.—**The superior oblique** is the muscle affected. The movement of the eye is limited in the downward and outward direction, and in *complete* paralysis of this muscle the downward movement is limited also. The *primary* deviation is upwards and inwards, whilst the *secondary* deviation is downwards and inwards. There is homonymous diplopia in the lower part of the field of fixation, the images being superposed. Owing to torsion of the globe outwards, the image of the affected eye is oblique, its upper extremity being inclined inwards; it is also the lower of the two, and its obliquity is increased on looking towards the affected side. The vertical distance between the two images is increased in looking downwards and towards the healthy side. The false image generally appears nearer to the patient than the true image. The line of separation between single and double vision is horizontally oblique, its lower extremity being on the affected side. The patient's face is often inclined downwards and towards the healthy side.

Paralysis of the third nerve.—The paralysis of this nerve may be *complete*, or only one or more of its branches may be involved.

Complete paralysis of the third nerve presents a very characteristic appearance. There is slight proptosis, and the upper eyelid falls over the cornea (ptosis). The pupil is moderately dilated, and does not respond to light. There is paralysis of the accommodation of the affected eye. The movements of the eye are limited in the inward, upward, downward, and intermediate directions. Both the primary and the secondary deviations are outwards. There is crossed diplopia. The false image is oblique, and is inclined towards the affected side; it also appears nearer to the patient and higher than the true image. The lateral distance between the images is increased in looking towards the healthy side; the vertical distance and the obliquity increase on looking upwards and diminish on looking downwards and towards the sound side. The patient often inclines his face towards the sound side and somewhat upwards.

Partial paralysis of the third nerve may affect one or more of the muscles supplied by it.

The internal rectus is the muscle most frequently involved. Its paralysis is accompanied by limited movement of the globe inwards. Both the primary and the secondary deviations are outwards. The diplopia is crossed, the double images being parallel and on the same level. The distance between the images is increased when the patient looks towards the sound side, and when he looks upwards. The line of separation between the single and double images in the field of fixation is inclined obliquely, its higher extremity corresponding to the sound side. The patient turns his face in the direction of the affected eye.

Paralysis of the superior rectus is characterised by limited movement of the globe in the direction upwards and slightly inwards. The primary deviation is downwards, and when the patient looks upwards this is downwards and outwards. The secondary deviation is upwards. The diplopia is most marked in looking upwards, the images are superposed, slightly crossed; the false image is the higher, and its upper end is inclined towards the healthy side. The patient turns his face upwards.

The inferior rectus is but rarely paralysed alone. When such paralysis exists there is restricted movement of the globe in the downward direction. The primary deviation is upwards and outwards. The secondary deviation is downwards and outwards. The diplopia is most marked in looking downwards. The images are superposed, they are slightly crossed; the false image is the lower, and its apex is inclined towards the affected side. The vertical separation of the images is increased by looking downwards and to the affected side. The patient turns his face downwards and slightly towards the affected side.

The inferior oblique, when paralysed, is unable to turn the eye upwards and outwards. The primary deviation is therefore downwards and inwards; whilst the secondary deviation is upwards and inwards. The diplopia is most marked in looking upwards when the images are superposed and slightly homonymous. The false image is the higher, and its upper end is inclined outwards; this obliquity increases on looking towards the affected side. The patient directs his face upwards and rather towards the side of the healthy eye.

The treatment of these paralyses must, as far as possible, be regulated by the cause of the affection. When central disease, of the brain or the medulla, can be traced as the cause of the local affection, the chief malady must be first dealt with. When syphilis is the probable cause we must have recourse to the iodide of potassium in large doses, with or without the use of mercury. Where the local failure is associated with a rheumatic diathesis the use of alkalies combined with colchicum, vapour-baths, warm clothing, &c., is advisable. In cases of great debility after acute illness, as diphtheria, typhoid, or other causes, the general health must be improved by the administration of good food, tonics, as ammonia and bark, quinine, iron, and cod liver oil.

In the use of these therapeutic agents it should be borne in mind that spontaneous recovery from defective muscular action and even from paralysis is not unfrequent, also that these cases sometimes fluctuate in their severity from day to day.

Electro-therapeutics are sometimes beneficial here, as in other nerve lesions. Both the *primary* (galvanic, continuous) and the secondary (induced, faradic) currents are employed. The plan I usually adopt is to use both these currents alternately. The application should be made daily for a period not exceeding five minutes. One pole of the battery is placed behind or in front of the mastoid process, and the other is placed over the closed eyelids of the affected eye, by means of moist small sponges. The strength of the current should be as great as the patient can tolerate without actual pain.

In addition to these medical and electrical remedies some precautions may at the same time be taken to prevent, or to alleviate the discomfort produced by the diplopia. Closure of the affected eye by means of a shade or a disc of ground glass mounted in a spectacle frame is of the greatest service; it of course prevents the double vision, in fact, the patient generally closes the affected eye of his own accord.

If the good eye be closed the diplopia certainly disappears, but there is always the false projection of the image in the direction of the action of the paralysed muscle, which produces vertigo, difficulty in judging of the position of surrounding objects, and other disagreeable sensations.

Prisms.—In certain cases which have become stationary, and in which the images are not too widely separated, the employment of prisms proves beneficial in reducing the diplopia, and in stimulating the muscle to renewed action. If we look through a prism we find that it produces an effect similar to that of a pathological deviation ; it causes diplopia. It follows, therefore, that by the proper employment of a prism we are often able to neutralise the diplopia. In the use of a prism the rule is to place its apex in the same direction as that in which the eye deviates ; thus, if the eye turns outwards the apex of prism must be turned outwards, if the eye turns in the apex must be inwards also. In practice it is well to use a prism slightly below the full correction so as to give the affected muscle an opportunity of exerting itself; thus, supposing the diplopia to be corrected by a prism of 4°, we should prescribe one of 3° in preference to the former. Another practical point is to divide the prism between the two eyes; thus, supposing No. 6 is found to reduce the diplopia when placed before the affected eye with its apex outwards, we prescribe two No. 3 prisms, one for each eye, and each with its apex outwards. As the impaired muscle regains its strength the strength of the prism must be diminished.

Operative treatment is never justifiable unless there is evidence of some recuperative power in the paralysed muscle, and all the remedies above mentioned have been duly tried without success. Even after the deviation has become stationary it is well to wait a few months before resorting to operative measures, inasmuch as spontaneous recoveries sometimes take place in the most unexpected manner. When, however, a muscle has been partly paralysed for upwards of six months, and has resisted all other treatment, an operation may be of service. This may consist of simple tenotomy of the antagonistic muscle so as to weaken its action, or it may require advancement of the affected muscle. The mode of procedure in these operations is exactly similar to that for Concomitant Strabismus.

Concomitant strabismus is the name given to a form of squint which is caused by excessive or defective convergence of the visual axes without any impairment of the other conjugate movements of the eyes.

It differs from paralytic squint in several ways (see p. 385).

1. The mobility of the affected eye is not diminished in any particular direction, but possesses a normal field of fixation.

2. The primary deviation is equal to the secondary.

3. Diplopia is generally absent, but, when present, does not disappear in any particular part of the field of fixation, but the two images preserve a constant relation to one another in all positions of the eyes.

4. There is no particular inclination of the patient's head.

Concomitant squint may be convergent or divergent.

Convergent strabismus (internal strabismus) is generally associated with hypermetropia, although it occasionally occurs in emmetropic and myopic eyes. It generally commences in early life. A patient who is hypermetropic has always to use an excessive amount of accommodation in order to see objects clearly (*see* Refraction), and we have seen on p. 381 that the act of accommodation is naturally associated with that of *convergence*, hence the hypermetrope finds it easier to use the requisite amount of accommodation if he uses his convergence at the same time. The consequence of this is that the visual lines cross between the patient and the object looked at. If each eye deviated inwards to the same extent, it is evident that the image of an object placed in the middle line would fall in each eye to the inner side of the yellow spot, homonymous diplopia would be the result, and neither eye would see the object in its true position. We have seen, however, that the act of convergence is independent of the other conjugate movements. So that all the patient has to do, in order to see the object clearly, is to move *both* eyes to the right or to the left, so that (the same amount of convergence being maintained) the visual axis of one eye is directed to the object, while the other deviates inwards. Thus, supposing that the strabismus was such that if it affected the two eyes equally, each eye would deviate inwards five degrees from its normal position; then, the one eye being directed to the object looked at, the visual axis of the other would deviate ten degrees from its normal position. The squinting eye in this case receives the image to the inner side of the yellow spot, and therefore projects it outwards, but as it is formed on a peripheral part of the retina, it produces a less intense visual impression than the image on the yellow spot of the other eye, hence the patient easily learns to disregard it, or, as it is termed, to 'suppress' it.

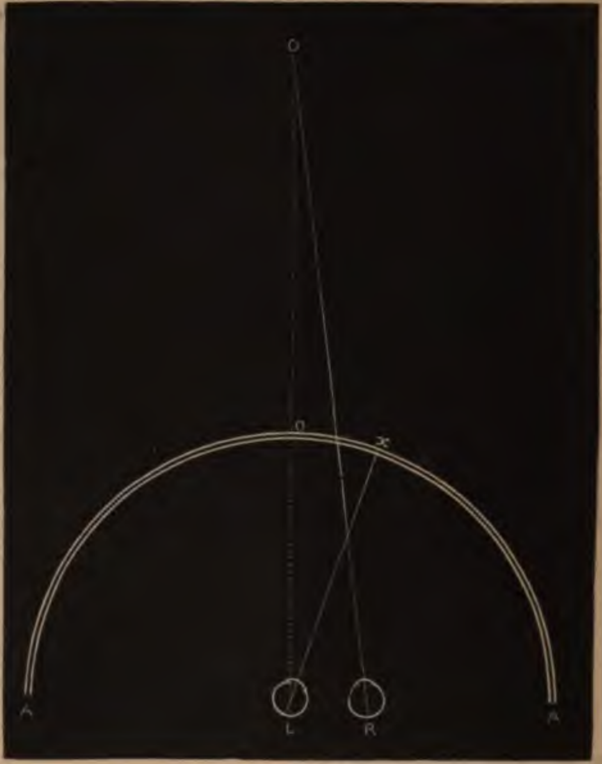

FIG. 120.

In the early stages the patient will often fix with either eye indifferently, and the squint is then said to be *alternating*. After a time, however, he acquires the habit of always fixing with the same eye, and the squint becomes *fixed* in the other. Even when the squint, however, has been fixed for many years, if the fixing eye be covered, the other can be made to fix the object, and the eye which is usually the fixing eye will squint; but, directly the eye is uncovered, it returns to its former position.

As long as the squint is alternating, each eye is used to the same extent, but directly it has become fixed, the squinting eye ceases to be used, and its acuity of vision rapidly declines; this is unaccompanied by any ophthalmoscopic change, but when it has existed for any length of time, it can only be improved by constant use of the eye, and even with this the visual acuteness can seldom be entirely restored; hence the importance of treating a squint directly it becomes fixed.

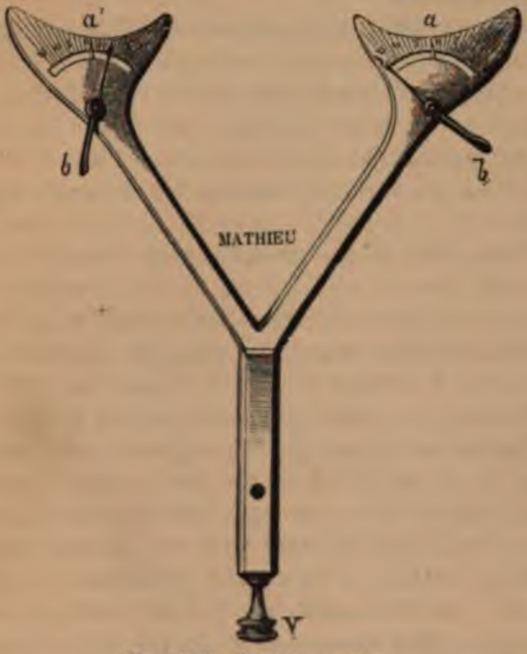

FIG. 121.—Strabismometer.

To detect which is the squinting eye is usually quite easy.

We direct the patient to fix a small object, such as the tip of the index finger, held about half a metre in front of the eyes. One eye is then observed to be directed towards the object, and the other to be more or less deviating: this is called primary deviation. If the eye which the patient thus prefers to use be then covered by a disc of ground glass, the deviating eye will be observed to move before it can fix the object, and the covered eye will now be seen, through the ground glass, to have deviated in a similar way to the first eye; this is called secondary deviation.

To find the amount of deviation.—1. This may be approximately effected by measuring the distance between two vertical lines, one passing through the middle line of the palpebral aperture, and the other through the centre of the pupil. Various instruments (fig. 121) are made, by which the distance between these two vertical lines can be measured in lines or millimetres.

2. *The angular measurement of strabismus* is more accurate than the above.

The angle of the strabismus is the angle which the visual axis of the deviating eye makes with the direction which it should have in a normal condition (Landolt). The measurement of this may be effected by using the arc of the perimeter. The graduated arc A O A (fig. 120) is placed horizontally. The deviating eye L is placed at the centre of the arc, and the patient is told to fix a distant object situated at O on the central radius. This he does with the normal eye R. Now the point O is that to which the deviating eye L would be directed in a normal condition. For all practical purposes it is sufficient to find the point x, on the *optic axis*, and to consider the angle O L x as the angle of the strabismus.

To find this we pass the flame of a candle along the arc of the perimeter, keeping our own eye close to the candle, until the image of the latter is seen reflected from the centre of the cornea. The point x on the arc, at which this image is seen, is then read off, and we know the angle O L x.

Divergent Strabismus usually occurs in association with myopia, although it is found in emmetropic and occasionally in hypermetropic eyes.

The connection between myopia and divergence is analogous to that between hypermetropia and convergence; in myopia the accommodation is used little, and in high degrees not at all, hence the patient finds it very difficult to use the great amount of convergence which would be required to obtain binocular vision at the close range at which he has to hold all objects. The difficulty of convergence is also increased by the elongated form of the globe by which it is much less adapted than the more globular emmetropic eye for rotating in Tenon's capsule.

At first the divergence is only *relative*, that is to say, there is no actual divergence of the visual axes, but they are divergent *relative* to the point looked at, in other words, there is inability to converge. Later on the divergence becomes *actual*.

When an eye has ceased to be of use for visual purposes, whether from amblyopia, opacity of the cornea, or other causes, it frequently undergoes deviation, which as a rule takes place outwards.

The treatment of concomitant squint.—1. In all cases, whether convergent or divergent, the refraction of each eye should be carefully examined, and correcting glasses prescribed (*See* Refraction.)

Children under five years of age are usually too young to wear glasses. In such cases all exercises requiring accommodation in the use of the eyes, such as reading fine print, should be discouraged. The child can be taught by means of large types, block letters, &c., until it is of sufficient age to wear spectacles.

2. The refraction being thus corrected, it is often found that intermittent strabismus is removed without operation, and even in cases where the squint has become established and apparently permanent for some weeks, it is occasionally found that the constant use of appropriate spectacles will cure the affection in the course of a few weeks.

3. When the strabismus is permanent an operation must be performed in addition to the optical correction. The operations for squint are two, viz.: tenotomy of the retracting muscle and advancement of its antagonist.

Tenotomy of the internal rectus.—This operation is performed for convergent strabismus. It consists in dividing the tendon close to its insertion into the sclerotic, and is done subconjunctivally. When the deviation is slight (about 15°) the simple division of the rectus belonging to the deviating eye is usually sufficient. When the deviation exceeds this the internal recti of both eyes should be divided. When the deviation is excessive and the eye so inverted that the sclerotic is covered by the inner canthus, it is advisable not only to divide both the internal recti, but also to liberate the conjunctiva from the subconjunctival tissue and the capsule of Tenon by free incision with the scissors before the tendon is divided.

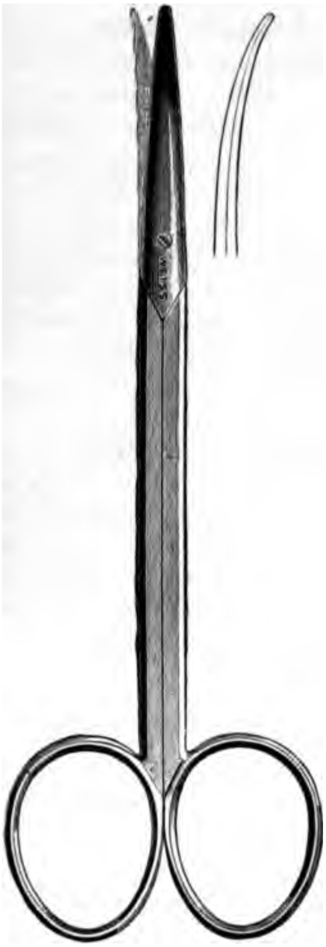
FIG. 122.—Squint Scissors.

Operation. — G. Critchett's method.—The instruments required are: (1) Speculum (fig. 31); (2) Fixation forceps (fig. 32); (3) Squint hook (fig. 33); (4) Blunt-pointed scissors (fig. 122).

The patient is recumbent face upwards. The surgeon stands facing the patient and on his right side, and his assistant on the opposite side. The eyelids widely separated by the speculum, the surgeon pinches up a fold of the conjunctiva and subconjunctival tissue at a point midway between the caruncle and the cornea; this is done with the fixation forceps held in the left hand. With the scissors in the right hand he then snips through these structures and the capsule of Tenon, and exposes the sclerotic, which is known by its smooth, white, shining appearance. The scissors are now put down and the squint hook is inserted into the wound, which is still held open by the forceps; the hook is first directed rather away from the cornea towards the caruncle, its point is then made to sweep upwards over the convexity of the globe and beneath the rectus tendon, at the upper border of which it will be seen projecting beneath the conjunctiva. On now drawing the hook towards the cornea the tendon will occupy its concavity, and the globe will be rotated outwards.

It is necessary to be careful to open the fibrous capsule of Tenon, otherwise the hook will not pass beneath the tendon, but between it and the conjunctiva; if this has occurred it will pass right up to the corneal margin instead of being arrested by the muscle. The forceps are now relinquished, and the hook passed to the left hand, by which it is held parallel to the nose, while some traction is made in forward and outward direction so as to tighten the tendon, and render it accessible to the scissors. The latter are now to be passed into the wound *between the hook and the eye*; in doing this the blades should be slightly open so that one passes in front and the other behind the tendon, which must be divided *close to the sclerotic* by two or three snips. When this has occurred the hook can be drawn forwards right up to the margin of the cornea. It should, however, be introduced a second time, to ascertain if any strands of tendon have escaped division.

Where a considerable effect is desired the scissors should be passed between the conjunctiva and the globe in front of the rectus before the tendon is divided, and during the division of the latter the incision of the surrounding capsule of Tenon should be more extensive than in a simple tenotomy. Should this be still insufficient to correct the deviation, the eye may be held outwards for a day or two by means of a stout silk suture. This is passed through the conjunctiva near the outer margin of the cornea, embracing about 6 mm.; by this the eye is rotated outwards, and the two ends of the thread are fastened to the skin of the temple by means of strapping.

In order to ascertain the result of the operation it is necessary to wait till the patient has regained consciousness; by then directing him to fix an object held at about half a metre in front of the eyes we can ascertain whether the desired effect has been obtained; if there is still convergence the subconjunctival tissue of one or both eyes must be more freely divided. If too much effect has been produced the divergence thus caused may be rectified by dividing the tendon of the external rectus of the deviating eye, or by the advancement of the internal rectus which has just been divided. Either of these correcting operations may be performed at once or after waiting for a few weeks.

Tenotomy of the external rectus is performed for the cure of divergence. The operation is performed in a similar way to that just described for the internal tendon, except that the incision, which is now made on the outer side of the globe opposite the lower edge of the muscle, should be further removed from the cornea. It must be remembered that the insertion of the tendon is rather farther back on the globe (7 mm.), that it is in closer apposition with the latter, and consequently more difficult to hook than the internal rectus.

The main difficulties in the division of either of these tendons are in opening and introducing the hook into Tenon's capsule, and in cutting through the tendon without pushing it off the end of the hook with the scissors.

Muscular advancement or adjustment signifies the detachment of a tendon from its insertion in the sclerotic, and bringing it forward in such a manner that it may become adherent at a point in front of its original position. By this means its power in the rotation of the globe is increased. The operation is most useful in cases of extreme divergence, more especially those in which the operation for convergent strabismus has been followed by deviation in the opposite direction. The internal rectus is the muscle most commonly advanced, although the external is sometimes operated upon in this way.

When there is extreme divergence it is usual first to divide the external rectus of the deviating eye, and then to proceed to the advancement of the internal. Some surgeons, however, prefer to postpone the tenotomy of the externus for a few weeks, with the hope of its not being required at all. Various methods of performing the operation are practised.

The Operation which I have found most successful in these cases is the same as that performed by my colleague, Mr. Anderson Critchett. The patient is anæsthetised, and the same instruments are used as for ordinary tenotomy, with the addition of three sutures of fine black silk, armed at each end with a small curved needle. The external rectus of the diverging eye is first divided in the usual manner. A vertical incision of about 1·5 to 2 centimetres is then made in the ocular conjunctiva by means of the scissors; the middle of this incision should be about 2 mm. from the inner edge of the cornea. The outer flap of the conjunctiva and the subconjunctival tissues are then carefully dissected away from the globe, as far as the insertion of the tendon of the internal rectus. This is then divided close to the sclerotic, either with the scissors alone or after having passed the squint hook beneath the tendon. The muscle is not dissected away from the capsule of Tenon and the conjunctiva, but these are all held away from the globe *en masse*, either with the ordinary fixation forceps or with De Wecker's double strabismus hook (fig. 123).

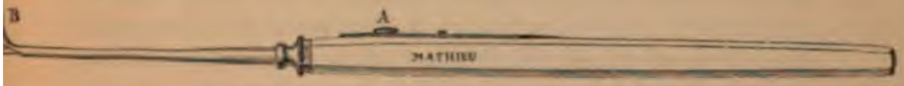

FIG. 123.—De Wecker's Double Strabismus Hook.

The three sutures are now to be introduced. One needle of each suture is first passed from within outwards through the flap of conjunctiva attached to the globe, one is introduced just above the cornea, one below it, and the third just opposite its horizontal meridian (fig. 124); this being done, the sutures are made fast by a single knot, and the needles are detached from these ends of the sutures; next the needles at the opposite ends of the sutures are passed from within outwards through the outer flap. The middle suture is passed first through the middle of the tendon near its extremity, and then through the conjunctiva at a distance of several mm. from its cut edge; the upper and lower sutures are similarly introduced at the upper and lower parts of the tendon respectively, as shown in the figure. The three sutures, now in their respective places, are made tense by an assistant, whilst the surgeon takes away a semilunar old of conjunctiva and subconjunctival tissue from the flap they have perforated (see fig. 124, dotted line); this may be done with the straight or curved scissors and the fixation forceps; the amount of conjunctiva thus removed must be proportionate to the effect desired. This done, the edges of the conjunctiva have to be brought into apposition and the tendon advanced by tying the three sutures. The middle suture should be the first to be tied, as it is supposed to be nearest to the middle of the tendon. When tied the sutures are cut short and are allowed to remain for a week.

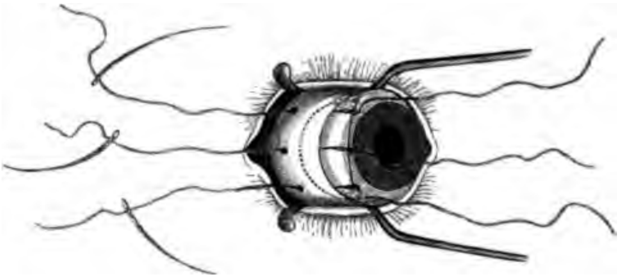

FIG. 124.--Operation for Advancement of Internal Rectus.

The after-treatment.—Simple tenotomy is never attended by serious reaction. A cold-water compress and bandage can be worn for twelve hours and then discarded. The subconjunctival extravasation of blood usually disappears in the course of two weeks, but if severe, as sometimes happens when vomiting takes place immediately after the operation, its absorption may require a longer period than this.

Where ametropia exists the correcting glasses should in all cases be worn from the time of the operation.

Muscular advancement is followed by pain and swelling, which may be considerable, and usually extends over a few days. A cold compress should be worn, and the patient kept in bed during the reaction.

The use of Prisms is recommended by some surgeons (Du Bois Reymond, Javal) as a means of cure for concomitant squint. The strength of the prism should be one or two degrees less than the angle of the strabismus, so that the patient can practise fusion of the double image by the use of the two eyes together. This method can only be of service in those very rare cases in which there is still binocular vision.

Nystagmus is an oscillating movement of the globes, produced by the involuntary and jerky contractions of the ocular muscles. It is commonly associated with some serious defect of vision which has existed from very early life, such as opacities of the cornea after purulent ophthalmia, pyramidal cataract, albinism, choroido-retinitis, and other affections. It is sometimes observed in the course of diseases of the brain and medulla. It is often developed in adult life amongst persons who work in coal pits (miner's nystagmus).

The oscillatory movement may take place in any direction; it may be horizontal, vertical, oblique, or rotatory. The horizontal movement is that most frequently met with. The movements vary greatly in rapidity and extent in different cases, and even in the same case. In the miner, for instance, it often only takes place when he is in the stooping posture.

Treatment fails to cure the affection. The vision should when possible be improved by glasses.

Paralysis of the internal muscles of the globe.—We have already seen (p. 380) that the third nerve supplies the ciliary muscle and the circular fibres of the iris, whilst the sympathetic supplies the radiating fibres.

Paralysis of the ciliary muscle (cyclo-plegia) is found in all degrees of severity. It is usually associated with a similar affection of the sphincter pupillæ, although it is occasionally found alone, as after certain cases of diphtheria. It is usually seen in paralysis of the third nerve. There is loss of the power of accommodation (p. 324), the pupil is generally dilated. Functional troubles, similar to those of presbyopia, are experienced, and if the eye happens to be hypermetropic there is deficiency in both near and distant vision. On the other hand, in myopia the troubles in near vision are much less.

Paralysis of the accommodation from senile changes (presbyopia), and from the use of therapeutic agents such as atropine, homatropine, duboisine, hyoscyamine, &c., will be found in the chapter on Refraction.

The iris may be affected without the ciliary muscle; thus we may find paralytic myosis, and paralytic mydriasis. Occasionally also both the ciliary muscle and both sets of iris fibres are affected; this condition is called ophthalmoplegia interna (Hutchinson).

Myosis, or contraction of the pupil, may exist alone or in conjunction with contraction of the ciliary muscle.

1. It may be only a sign of ordinary spasm of the accommodation, such as is frequently found in hypermetropia.

2. It may be due to paralysis of the radiating fibres of the iris, and symptomatic of pressure upon the cervical sympathetic.

3. It may be symptomatic of cerebral or spinal disease. When myosis exists, and the pupil does not respond to light, but does change its diameter with accommodation, we have the condition known as the *Argyll Robertson pupil.* It is indicative of locomotor ataxy in a moderately advanced stage.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE DISEASES OF THE ORBIT.

CELLULITIS—ABSCESS—PERIOSTITIS—CARIES—ŒDEMA—EMPHYSEMA—DISTENSION OF FRONTAL SINUS—EXOPHTHALMIC GOITRE—TUMOURS—LIPOMA—FIBROMA—EXOSTOSES—SARCOMA—SCIRRHUS AND SOFT CANCER—PULSATING EXOPHTHALMOS—ERECTILE OR CAVERNOUS TUMOURS—INJURIES AND FOREIGN BODIES.

Cellulitis, or inflammation of the loose tissues of the orbit, may arise spontaneously, or may come on in the course of an attack of erysipelas.

In the milder cases the inflammation is localised; there are redness and œdema of the upper lid, and the conjunctiva is generally raised up by fluid either over its whole extent, or over a limited area. If the inflammation extends deeply into the orbit, the globe will be rendered prominent, and, in most cases, the movements of the globe are painful.

In the severer forms the symptoms are all more marked. The inflammation may be ushered in with a rigour and a rise of temperature; there may be pain, swelling, and a dusky appearance of the upper lid; the globe is pushed forwards; the conjunctiva is congested, and there may be considerable chemosis. The movements of the eye are limited, and there is consequent diplopia. Visual acuteness may be much interfered with, and the globe may be involved in the inflammatory process. On digital examination between the upper part of the globe and the orbital ridge, the tissues beneath are found to be tense, firm, and painful on pressure; in some cases semi-fluctuation can be felt. There is intense deep-seated throbbing pain.

The causes of this affection are various, and frequently obscure. It often follows erysipelas of the face; other causes are injury, septicæmia, inflammation of the lachrymal gland, periostitis.

Prognosis and treatment.—The milder forms are not dangerous; they usually subside by the use of hot fomentations every few hours, combined with dry warmth by means of cotton wool in the intervals, and general tonic treatment. The severer forms nearly always lead to suppuration; as soon as this is suspected to have taken place, exploratory incisions should be promptly made; for this purpose a sharp scalpel should be passed either through the upper lid near the edge of the orbit, or through the conjunctiva above and on each side of the globe, and then plunged deeply into the orbit, its point being directed away from the globe. Hot fomentations and poultices should also be employed.

Acute abscess of the orbit is a most serious affection, not only because it imperils the eye, but because a fatal termination is by no means rare. It generally commences with the symptoms of acute cellulitis, in a few days these become more pronounced, the pain becomes very severe, the globe more prominent, and fluctuation may be detected. The absence of this latter symptom, however, must not cause any delay in making an incision if the other symptoms are sufficiently urgent; for if suppuration is present, and the pus find no exit, it burrows among the ocular muscles, and may lead to their permanent destruction. The tissue of the optic nerve may also become involved, or the inflammation may spread through the orbital plate of the frontal bone to the meninges of the brain, or by the orbital veins to the cavernous sinus.

Chronic abscess presents less marked symptoms, and is sometimes difficult to diagnose from a soft orbital tumour, which, owing to its elasticity, may appear to be semifluctuant. Pain may be slight, or altogether absent. There is usually some tenderness on pressure. The subconjunctival tissue is congested and swollen, there may be considerable proptosis and lateral displacement. A history of some injury at a distant period will sometimes help in the diagnosis, and an exploratory incision into the semifluctuant region will often give exit to purulent matter.

Acute periostitis presents the same symptoms as acute abscess of the orbit; indeed, pus very rapidly forms beneath the periosteum, dissecting it from the bone, causing the death of the latter, and not unfrequently leading to the formation of an abscess in the anterior lobe of the brain, or to meningitis.

Treatment consists in making an early and free incision down to the bone. The inflammation is of a low erysipelatous type, and antiphlogistic measures are not well borne. A careful watch must be kept for the onset of cerebral symptoms.

Chronic periostitis is usually the result of syphilis, rheumatism, or scrofula. The pain is of a dull aching character, and is worse at night. When it affects the margin of the orbit there are œdema of the eyelid and tenderness on pressure. When deeply seated there is frequently paralysis of one or more of the ocular muscles, and sometimes prominence of the eyeball.

The treatment consists in giving full doses of iodide of potassium, and counter-irritation is sometimes useful. In scrofulous cases it is nearly always the margin of the orbit that is affected; the treatment must then of course be directed to the general disease.

Œdema of the orbital cellular tissue with exophthalmos occasionally occurs, and usually indicates deep-seated trouble in the circulation of the ophthalmic vein. This condition may be brought about by any pressure upon the vein in its passage through the sphenoidal fissure, such as often takes place in the case of periostitis, tumours of the optic nerve, and such like, and is then only a sign of embarrassed circulation; but when, in addition to these signs, we find the pupil widely dilated, the globe quite immovable, and that cerebral symptoms are becoming manifest, the case is much more serious, and is indicative of *thrombosis of the cavernous sinus.*

Emphysema, or the infiltration of air into the cellular tissues of the orbit, may be caused by rupture of the ethmoidal cells, or of the lachrymal sac. It may give rise to considerable proptosis, with swelling of the conjunctiva and eyelids. The swelling is increased when the patient makes a forcible expiration with the anterior nares closed, as in blowing the nose. It is characterised by a crackling sensation on digital examination, and can be reduced by firm pressure exercised over several days.

Distension of the frontal sinus—the result of pent-up secretion or pus—sometimes presents characters similar to those of orbital tumour. It is usually the result of an injury, such as a blow upon the forehead, although a long period usually elapses before the appearance of the swelling; not unfrequently it comes on in children after measles or whooping cough. The swelling first appears at the upper part of the inner angle of the orbit. At first it is hard, but after a time it may become soft and fluctuating. The skin is freely movable over the tumour. It is usually slow in progress, but is liable at any time to take on acute suppuration. Before the bony wall has become absorbed, it may easily be mistaken for an exostosis, but it rises more gradually from the level of the adjacent bone, and, by firm pressure, some elastic yielding can usually be detected. In severe cases, the swelling is so extensive as to push the eye-ball downwards and outwards.

Treatment consists in making an opening into the nose to replace the normal exit afforded by the infundibulum. For this purpose, a free incision is made into the prominent part of the tumour, through which a trocar is made to pass into the nose. A fine drainage tube is then passed through the hole and out at the nostril, and there retained for some time. The cavity may also be syringed out occasionally with tepid, carbolised water. Treated in this way, the swelling generally recedes, and the parts are sometimes restored to their normal dimensions.

Exophthalmic Goitre (Graves's disease; Basedow's disease) is the term applied to a group of symptoms of which the chief are: (1) Paroxysmal cardial palpitation, with throbbing of the vessels of the neck; (2) enlargement of the thyroid body; and (3) prominence of the eyes. It may, however, exist in the absence of proptosis on the one hand, or an enlarged thyroid on the other. It is usually ushered in by fits of caprice or irritability of temper; then come attacks of palpitation which are often very violent, and are accompanied by a sense of suffocation, throbbing of the cervical vessels, and flushing of the face. By-and-by the throbbing of the neck becomes more or less permanent, and the thyroid gland is enlarged. This is from extreme vascularisation; the arteries carrying blood to the gland become larger, and the gland appears to be lifted *en masse* at each pulsation. The arteries within the gland become increased in size and number, and the veins convey arterial blood, so that the structure resembles a cirsoid aneurysm; indeed, the elasticity and pulsation, together with the existence of blowing murmurs, have caused experienced observers to mistake this condition for aneurysm.

The enlargement usually begins, and is generally larger on the right side. Hypertrophy of the connective tissue may or may not follow. Cystic bronchocele is a more rare accompaniment, and is probably a mere coincidence.

The eyes begin to look prominent at the same time, or a little earlier than the thyroid enlargement; they have a shining appearance which, with the prominence, gives a peculiar frightened expression to the face. The proptosis is usually progressive, though stationary periods occur, it is generally equal on both sides, and there is no strabismus. The retina is not appreciably altered. Vision is usually normal. Von Graefe laid some stress upon the fact that the association of movement between the upper lid and the globe is lost in Graves's disease; this is not the effect merely of proptosis, for it does not occur in cases in which the eye is pushed forwards by a growth; it probably results from an interference with the action of the fibres of Müller; the symptom, however, is certainly frequently absent.

It must be carefully borne in mind that the eyes themselves are not enlarged, but are simply pushed forwards by the vascular distension of the fatty connective tissue at the back of the orbit. There is a venous stasis of this tissue, causing it to become turgid like erectile tissue, a simile which Graves himself used. The eye-balls usually recede *post mortem*. True hypertrophy of the retrobulbar tissue is, however, sometimes found.

Sleeplessness is a common symptom, especially early in the case. A more or less permanent febrile condition is sometimes observed (Frissier, Basedow). The *appetite* may fail, or may be greater than in health. Vomiting is common, and the patient grows thin even when the appetite is good. Diarrhœa is common and usually alternates with constipation. In women there is generally *amenorrhœa*, usually accompanied by profuse *leucorrhœa*. Stokes thought the whole disease due to anæmia, but cases have occurred without any anæmia (Frissier).

Etiology.—The disease is far commoner among women, and Trousseau states that out of fifty cases collected by Withuisen, only eight occurred in men. The age is most commonly from twenty to twenty-five, or a few years earlier, but the disease is rare in advanced life.

The patients are usually nervous subjects. Several cases have been traced to fright or grief, but as a rule no cause can be assigned. Trousseau and many others ascribe the disease to derangement of the cervical sympathetic nerves and ganglia, especially the inferior cervical ganglia; hence paresis of the vaso-motor system, and consequent dilatation of the vessels. In various autopsies the above ganglia have been found diseased, showing hypertrophy of the interstitial connective tissue, and atrophy of the nervous elements. But other most careful observers (Ranvier, Wilks, Déjérine, Cheadle) have failed to find any abnormal appearances in the sympathetic. Dr. Cheadle, in an interesting case described in the 'St. George's Hospital Reports,' found considerable capillary dilatation in the medulla oblongata and upper part of the spinal cord, but without atrophy or cellular lesions, showing thus simply *increased vascularisation*. No lesions were found elsewhere, neither in the viscera nor in the cervical sympathetic. The pneumogastric nerve is certainly implicated, as shown by the disturbances of the digestive tract, and the palpitation of the heart. The singular nervous sensibility, which is so early and constant a symptom, and which in some cases has even gone on to mania after the cure of both the exophthalmos and the goitre, would seem to point to the brain itself as the initial seat of the disease.

Treatment.—The avoidance of mental emotion is very important. Digitalis is lauded by Trousseau, together with the application of ice to the precordium and the thyroid body. Bromide of potassium is useful, and so are opium and chloral. Belladonna, which theoretically would be bad, is practically found to be of great benefit. Veratrum viride carefully given is much praised by Aran and Sée, as making the pulse slower without increasing the arterial tension as digitalis does.

Iron has been found harmful. The Galvanic and Faradic currents have been found to be beneficial in many cases. During the last year I have handed over several cases to my colleague, Dr. de Watteville, who assures me that they have been remarkably benefited by this treatment. He applies the galvanic current about ten or fifteen minutes daily for several weeks in succession, placing one pole over the nape, and the other all over the anterior portions of the neck.

Tumours of all kinds are found in the orbit; they may originate within the tissues of the cavity, they may commence within the eye and thence extend to the orbit, or they may invade that cavity from surrounding parts, as the nose, the palate, the antrum, the skull, or the temporal fossa. Orbital tumours may be non-malignant and of slow growth, as the cystic, the fibrous, and the fatty kinds; they may be malignant and more or less rapid in progress, as the sarcomata, and carcinomata, or they may be pulsating, as the vascular tumours.

Symptoms.—The presence of a tumour of any notable magnitude always gives rise to protrusion of the globe (proptosis); when the tumour is deeply seated, and at the apex of the orbit, this is usually one of the first signs of its existence; when situated at one side of the orbit it usually causes lateral as well as forward displacement. In proportion to the increase of the tumour, so does the globe become displaced, until in severe cases it is protruded beyond the palpebral aperture. Functional troubles are, also, always present, and will vary according to the position and size of the swelling; when the cranial nerves are pressed upon, pain will be severe, and the movements of the globe impeded; should the optic nerve be involved, its function will be interfered with, and the vision partly or entirely destroyed; with lateral deviation, where vision remains, diplopia is always produced. Pressure upon the ophthalmic vein is likely to set up œdema of the orbital tissues. Proptosis is not always easy to make out; it may be mistaken for enlargement of the globe such as is sometimes found in progressive myopia and secondary glaucoma. In such cases, if the upper lid is elevated by the surgeon's finger, and the patient told to look downwards, the antero-posterior elongation of the globe will be at once detected.

After a time, the tumour becomes apparent at some part of the margin of the orbit, and can then be examined by palpation, by auscultation, and if necessary, by exploratory punctures. Whenever an orbital tumour is found to exist, the condition of all surrounding regions, as the mouth, pharynx, and nasal cavities, should be carefully examined.

Lipoma and **Fibroma** are extremely rare in the orbit; a few cases, however, are recorded.

Cysts occurring in the orbit are not uncommon; they are usually either *dermoid* (see p. 8) or *hydatid.*

Exostoses of the orbit are similar to those occurring in other parts of the body. They are usually of the ivory variety, and attached by a broad base; in such cases it is impossible to remove them. Occasionally, however, they are pedunculated, and may then be sawn and wrenched off. Such operations are, however, not altogether free from risk when, as is usually the case, the growth is attached to the roof of the orbit; for a portion of the latter may easily be torn away, and a fatal meningitis set up.

More rarely exostoses are met with which contain large cystic cavities communicating with each other; this variety sometimes attains enormous dimensions.

Exostoses of the orbit are slow in development, and painless in progress, producing in succession all the symptoms that have been above enumerated as characteristic of intra-orbital tumour.

Sarcoma is the most frequent of the new growths affecting the orbit. It may occur by extension from the choroid (p. 153), or it may first appear in the cellular tissue of the orbit. Its rate of progress is very variable; when it develops rapidly the tumour presents but little pigmentation, whilst the slow-growing sarcomata are usually dark in colour, and are sometimes quite black.

The treatment consists in the early and complete removal of the diseased tissues. When the tumour is small, circumscribed, and near the surface, it can occasionally be removed without molesting the globe of the eye. To facilitate this the palpebral opening may be enlarged by dividing the lids at the outer canthus, and then dissecting in the direction of the tumour; which, when exposed, may be seized with vulsellum forceps and cleared from its surroundings by means of a steel director, or by strong, curved, blunt-ended scissors, and then cut or torn away.

Sometimes a small orbital tumour can be removed by an incision through the skin at the margin of the orbit without interfering with the conjunctival sac.

When the tumour or new growth is extensive, and involves the tissues of the orbit, or has recurred after removal, it is necessary to take away the globe and the whole of the orbital contents. To effect this, the external commissure must be divided up to the edge of the orbit, the conjunctiva separated by incision through the whole extent of the upper and lower culs-de-sac. The eyelids are then seized with forceps or retractors, and drawn upwards and downwards by an assistant. The globe can now be enucleated before taking out the tumour, or the whole mass, including the eye, can be seized with vulsellum forceps and pulled forwards, while it is detached from the walls of the orbit with strong blunt-ended curved scissors. Having thus removed the greater part of the tumour, careful digital examination must be made, and any further portions of tissue which appear to be diseased removed. Hæmorrhage is usually copious, but generally ceases after pressure with sponges or pledgets of cotton wool. If it cannot be controlled by these means, a button-shaped thermal cautery at a dull-red heat may be used, or the strong perchloride of iron solution may be applied.

When the tumour is suspected to be sarcoma or carcinoma, it is well to supplement the extirpation by chloride of zinc paste (F. 38); small strips of lint about half an inch wide and two inches long are covered with this and placed *inside* the orbit over the exposed surface. These are then covered with layers of cotton wool; the eyelids must be protected with vaseline; otherwise, sloughing is sure to take place. The lids are then closed over the wool, and covered with a tight compress to prevent further hæmorrhage. A hypodermic injection of morphia should be given before the patient recovers from the anæsthetic; otherwise, the pain from the chloride of zinc is excruciating.

Scirrhus and **soft cancer** occur in the orbit either primarily or by extension from surrounding parts.

The treatment consists in complete removal of the diseased tissues, and in the application of the caustic paste (F. 38) to the exposed surface.

Pulsating Exophthalmos.—Cases are occasionally met with in which the globe becomes protruded at the same time that a soft pulsating swelling, with aneurysmal bruit and thrill, appears at the upper and inner angle of the orbit.

The history usually given is either that the patient has suddenly heard a loud snap, and that this has been succeeded by an intermittent buzzing or blowing noise, and soon afterwards by the pulsating swelling; or that the symptoms have come on very shortly after a severe injury to the head. In the majority of these symptoms of fracture of the base have been present.

In a third class of cases, a perforating wound either in the orbit or the roof of the mouth has been the immediate cause.

In the earlier cases the symptoms were supposed to be due to intra-orbital aneurysm—an opinion which was strengthened by the discovery of such aneurysms in two cases by Guthrie and Carron du Villards. Later autopsies have proved that, at any rate, in the majority of cases, the pulsating swelling in the orbit is formed, not by the ophthalmic artery, but by the varicose and distended ophthalmic vein, that this distension can be traced back to the cavernous sinus, between which and the internal carotid artery a communication often exists. This arterio-venous communication may be brought about by the giving way of an atheromatous patch;[1] by the rupture of an aneurysm in the sinus,[2] by a fracture of the base passing across the sinus,[3] or by a wound. Thus in one of Nélaton's cases,[4] the rib of an umbrella thrust into the right orbit passed through the body of the sphenoid and wounded the left carotid artery as it lay in the sinus; the injury was shortly followed by pulsating exophthalmos on the left side.

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[1] Hirschfeld, *Gaz. des Hôpit.* 1859, p. 57.

[2] Baron, *Med. Chir. Trans.* xlviii.; Nunneley, *Med. Chir. Trans.* xlii.

[3] Nélaton, *Delens de la Communication de la Car. Int. et du Sinus Car.* Paris, 1870.

[4] Nélaton, *Delens, loc. cit.*

In Schaefke's case the artery was wounded by a pistol shot fired into the mouth.

In a few cases both orbits have been affected; this occurred in a case published by Mr. W. Adams Frost:[1] the patient at the time of observation was thirty-eight years old. When ten years of age he had been run over by a timber waggon. He had symptoms of fracture of the base, and the characteristic symptoms of pulsating exophthalmos appeared in the left orbit and had persisted ever since; shortly before he came under observation a small pulsating swelling appeared in the right orbit.

In a few cases the symptoms have been due to a malignant tumour in the orbit.

Treatment and prognosis.—Ligature of the common carotid artery has been extensively employed, and with a fair amount of success; other measures, such as rest, low diet, application of ice, galvano-puncture, and the injection of styptics, have also been successful in some cases. The affection, however, tends after having reached a certain stage, to become stationary, and not infrequently undergoes spontaneous cure, so that unless the noise in the head were distressing, or the increase in the size of the swelling rendered its rupture probable, a prudent surgeon would not adopt such of the above modes of treatment as are fraught with danger to life.

Erectile or cavernous tumours.—These growths, whose structure resembles very much that of the corpora cavernosa, seem to be more frequent in the orbit than elsewhere. They are slow-growing, but tend to mould themselves to the parts with which they come in contact, so that their removal *en masse* without injury to the optic nerve and muscles is generally impossible, while their great vascularity renders a partial operation troublesome and dangerous.

Injuries and foreign bodies.—The orbit is not a very uncommon situation for a foreign body to become embedded in, while owing to the amount of fat which the orbit contains, its presence may be unsuspected for many days—hence the importance of making a very careful examination of a wound in the eyelid or conjunctiva. As an instance of the ease with which a large foreign body may be concealed in the orbit, the case published by Mr. Carter is probably unique. An old man fell, while drunk, down a flight of steps, at the bottom of which was a row of hat pegs. He received a contusion, and a cut on the eyelid, which, after a few days, induced him to seek advice; a surgeon treated him for several days, and then noticed a black substance lying in the wound; on seizing this with forceps he succeeded in withdrawing the shaft of a hat-peg measuring 3¼ inches in length.[1]

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[1] *Trans. Ophthal. Soc.* vol. iii.

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[1] The peg is in St. George's Hospital Museum.

APPENDIX.

FORMULÆ.

NO.

1. Mitigated nitrate of silver crayon is made by fusing together equal parts of nitrate of silver and nitrate of potash, and running into moulds.
2. The same, consisting of 1 part nitrate of silver, 2 parts nitrate of potash.
3. The same, consisting of 1 part nitrate of silver, 3 parts nitrate of potash.
4. The same, consisting of 1 part nitrate of silver, 3½ parts nitrate of potash.
5. Nitrate of silver gr. ¼, distilled water ℥j. Mix.
6. Nitrate of silver gr. x., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
7. Nitrate of silver gr. xx., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
8. Sulphate of zinc gr. ij., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
9. Sulphate of alum gr. ij., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
10. Chloride of zinc gr. ij., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
11. Carbonate of soda gr. x., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
12. Carbonate of soda ʒjss., liq. carbonis detergens ʒij., water Oj. Mix.
13. Biborate of soda gr. x., water ℥j. Mix.
14. Boracic acid, gr. iv., water ℥j. Mix.
15. Sulphate of quinine gr. iij., acid. sulph. dil. q. s., water ℥j. Mix.
16. Carbolic acid gr. ij., water ℥j. Mix.

NO.

17. Homatropine hydrobromate gr. vi., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
18. Atropine sulphate gr. ¼, distilled water ℥j. Mix.
19. Atropine sulphate gr. ij., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
20. Atropine sulphate gr. iv., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
21. Duboisia sulphate gr. j., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
22. Daturia sulphate gr. iv., distilled water ℥j. Mix.
23. Belladonna extract ʒij., water Oj. Mix.
24. Hydrarg. oxid. flav. gr. ij. to iv., vaseline ℥j. Mix.
25. Ung. hyd. nitrat. gr. xx., ung. cetacei ʒij. Mix.
26. Ung. hyd. oxid. rub. gr. xx., ung. cetacei ʒij. Mix.
27. Liq. plumbi subacetatis ʒj., aquæ destill. Oj. Mix.
28. Chloral hydrat. gr. xx. to xxx., syrup of orange peel ʒij., water ℥jss. Mix.
29. Morphia hydrochlorate gr. ¼, distilled water ♏v. Mix.
30. Pilocarpine hydrochlorate gr. iv., water ℥j. Mix.
31. Eserine sulphate gr. ij. to iv., water ℥j. Mix.
32. Pilocarpine hydrochlorate gr. v., water ℥j. Mix. Three minims to be injected hypodermically daily, the strength of the dose to be increased gradually. The object is to produce profuse perspiration and slight salivation. Used in cases of detached retina, choroiditis, and retinitis.
33. Sulphate of copper, alum, nitrate of potash, equal parts fused together, and camphor $\frac{1}{50}$ part of the whole added. Run into moulds and keep in stoppered bottles. This mixture is called Lapis Divinus.
34. Atropia sulphate gr. ij. to xx., vaseline ℥j. Mix.
35. Pil. hydrarg. gr. ijss., ext. hyoscy. gr. ijss. Mix.
36. Pil. hydrarg. gr. ijss., pulv. opii gr. ¼. Mix.
37. Liq. hydrarg. perchlor. ʒj., tinct. cinchonæ ʒss., aquæ ℥j. Mix.
38. Zinci chlorid. ℥ss., farinæ ʒj., liq. opii sed. ℥ss. Mix.

$D = 0,5.$

The Gallic tribes fell off, and sued for peace. Even the Batavians became weary of the hopeless contest, while fortune, after much capricious hovering, settled at last upon the Roman side. Had Civilis been successful, he would have been deified; but his misfortunes, at last, made him odious in spite of his heroism. But the Batavian was not a man to be crushed, nor had he lived so long in the Roman service to be outmatched in politics by the barbarous Germans He was not to be sacrificed as a peace-offering to revengeful Rome. Watching from beyond the Rhine the progress of defection and the decay of national

$D = 0,6.$

enthusiasm, he determined to be beforehand with those who were now his enemies. He accepted the offer of negotiation from Cerialis. The Roman general was eager to grant a full pardon, and to reenlist so brave a soldier in the service of the empire. A colloquy was agreed upon. The bridge across the Nabalia was broken asunder in the middle, and Cerialis and Civilis met upon the severed sides. The placid stream by which Roman enterprise had connected the waters of the Rhine with the lake of Flevo, flowed between the imperial

$D = 0,8.$

commander and the rebel chieftain. — Here the story abruptly terminates. The remainder of the Roman's narrative is lost, and upon that broken bridge the form of the Batavian hero disappears for ever. His name fades from history: not a syllable is known of his subsequent career; everything is buried in the profound oblivion which now steals over the scene where he was the most imposing actor. The contest of Civilis with Rome contains a

$D = 1.$

remarkable foreshadowing of the future conflict with Spain, through which the Batavian republic, fifteen centuries later, was to be founded. The characters, the events, the amphibious battles, desperate sieges, slippery alliances, the traits of generosity, audacity, and cruelty, the generous confidence, the broken faith, seem so closely to repeat themselves, that history appears to present the

$D = 1,25.$

selfsame drama played over and over again, with but a change of actors and of costume. There is more than a fanciful resemblance between Civilis and William the Silent, two heroes of ancient German stock, who had learned the arts of war and peace in the service of a foreign and haugthy world-empire. Determination, D = 1,5.

concentration of purpose, constancy in calamity, elasticity almost preternatural, self-denial, consummate craft in political combinations, personal fortitude, and passionate patriotism, were the heroic elements in both. The ambition of each was subordinate to the

D = 1,75.

cause which he served. Both refused the crown, although each, perhaps, contemplated, in the sequel, a Batavian realm of which he would have been the inevitable chief. Both offered the throne to a Gallic prince,

D = 2,25.

for Classicus was but the prototype of Anjou, as Brinno of Brederode, and neither was destined, in this world, to see his sacrifices crowned with success.

D = 3.

The characteristics of the two great races of the land portrayed themselves in the Roman and the Spanish struggle with much

D = 4.

the same colors: twice a Batavian republic took its rank among the leading powers of the earth, the

MOTLEY.

D = 60.

D = 9.

D = 3.

V Z B D F H K O S A

D = 2.

L N P R T V Z B D C E

D = 1.

O B C L N P R T V Z B D

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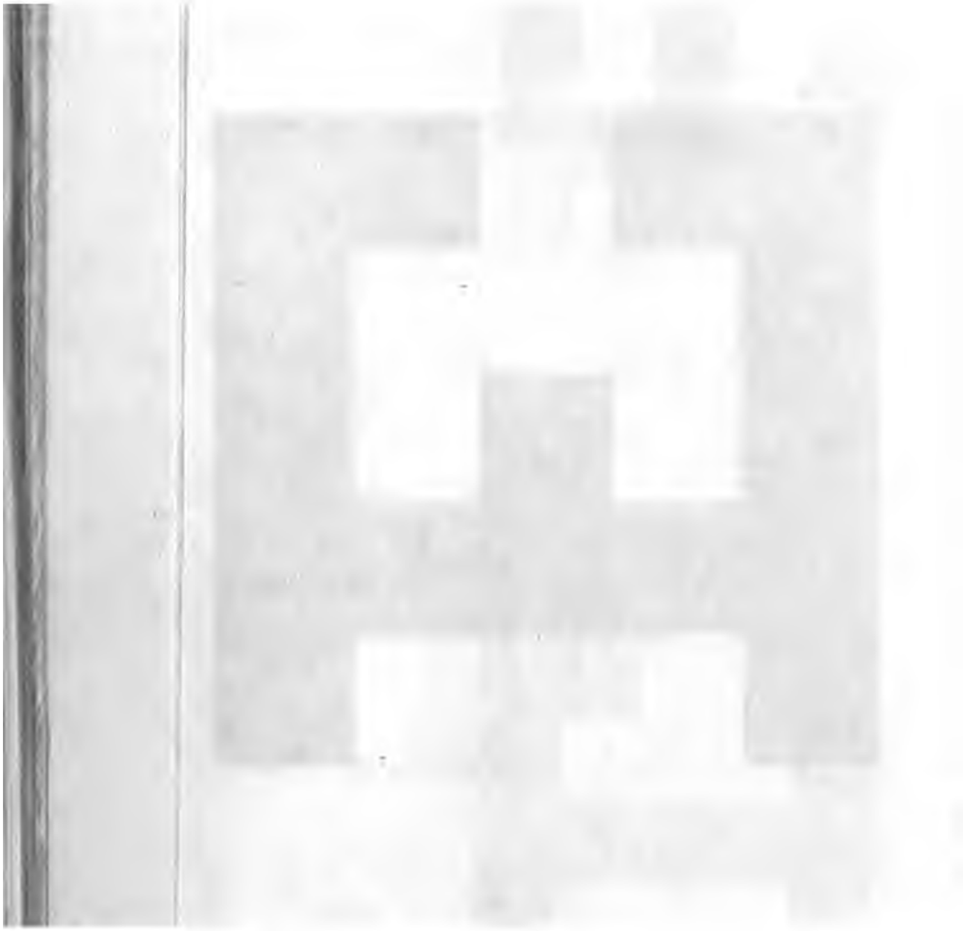

INDEX.

PAGE

- ABERRATION . 320
  - chromatic . 320
  - spherical . 320
- Abscess . 80
  - of cornea . 80
  - of orbit . 404
- Accommodation . 324
  - amplitude of . 325
  - spasm of . 338, 352, 353
- Achromatopsia . 236
- Acute glaucoma . 299
- Acuteness of vision . 328
- Advancement of internal rectus . 398
- Albuminuric retinitis . 88
  - pathology of . 190
  - plates of . 190
  - prognosis of . 190
  - signs of . 188
- 'Alpha' angle, the . 225, 322
- Amaurosis . 203
  - degrees of . 203
  - in infancy . 205
  - tobacco . 203
  - simulated . 210
- Amblyopia, tobacco . 203
  - from strabismus . 206
- Ametrometer, Thompson's . 360
- Ametropia . 330
- Amplitude of accommodation . 325
- Angle 'Alpha' . 225, 322
  - in myopia . 334
  - visual . 327, 378
- Ankyloblepharon . 26
- Anterior chamber . 130
  - paracentesis of . 130
- Anterior principal focus . 314
  - synechia . 83
- Apparent strabismus . 385

PAGE

- Aqueous humour . 123
- Argyll Robertson's operation for ectropion . 21
- Argyll Robertson's pupil . 402
- Arlt's operation for entropion . 18
- Arterial pulsation in glaucoma . 296
- Artificial eyes . 99
  - celluloid . 99
  - Frost's . 323, 332 337, 372
  - glass . 99
  - pupil . 160
- Associated movements . 380
- Asthenopia . 337
- Astigmatic clock, Carter's . 357
- Astigmatic surface, refraction at . 339
- Astigmatism . 338
  - compound . 3
  - of cornea . 373, 327
  - correction of . 357
  - definition of . 340
  - erect image in . 362
  - laws for refraction in . 339, 341
  - shadow-test in . 370
  - simple . 340, 358
  - varieties of . 340
  - vision in . 357
- Atrophy of optic disc . 181
  - primary . 182
  - secondary . 183
  - symptoms of . 181
  - treatment of . 183
- Atropine . 128
  - duration of . 353
  - effects of . 128
  - in glaucoma . 299
  - in hypermetropia . 353, 354
  - in iritis . 128
  - irritation . 128
  - when necessary . 375
- Axes of convex lens . 318

PAGE

- BASEDOW'S disease . 406
- Biconvex lens . 317
- Blepharitis . 4
- Blepharospasm . 13
- Blindness, colour- . 236
- Blindness, varieties of . 236
- Blind spot . 172, 217
- Burns . 104
  - of cornea . 104
  - of eyelids . 26

- CANAL . 248
  - of Petit . 248
  - of Schlemm . 109
- Canaliculus, division of . 35
  - knife, Bowman's . 35
    - Weber's . 35
  - obstruction of . 31
- Carter's astigmatic clock . 357
- Cataract . 248
  - artificial pupil for . 256
  - causes of . 253
  - classification of . 248
  - symptoms of . 254
  - treatment of . 256
- Cataract extraction . 264
  - accidents and complications . 273
  - in capsule . 276
  - opaque capsule after . 281
  - sequelæ of . 277
- Cataract, operations for . 265
  - couching . 265
  - Critchett's, Anderson . 271
  - Daviel's . 266
  - extraction (see above)
  - flap operation . 265
  - Liebreich's . 271
  - linear method (Gibson's) . 261
  - linear method (Graefe's) . 267
  - Macnamara's . 277
  - needling . 258
  - Pagenstecher's . 276
  - preliminary iridectomy . 265
  - solution . 257
  - Streatfeild's . 271
  - suction . 262
  - Taylor's . 271
  - Warlomont's . 271
  - De Wecker's . 271
- Cataract, varieties of . 248
  - central . 248
  - congenital . 252
  - cortical . 249, 250

PAGE

- Cataract, diabetic . 253
  - general . 252
  - hard . 252
  - lamellar . 249, 250
  - mixed . 252
  - Morgagnian . 253
  - nuclear . 248, 250
  - posterior polar . 250, 251
  - pyramidal . 250, 251
  - senile . 252
  - soft . 252
  - traumatic . 253
  - zonular . 249, 250
- Cavernous tumours of orbit . 413
- Cellulitis of orbit . 403
- Cerebral hemianæsthesia . 208
- Chalazion . 6
- Chancre of eyelid . 12
- Choroid . 120
  - anatomy . 120
  - coloboma of . 154
  - ophthalmoscopic appearances of . 134
  - rupture of . 143
  - sarcoma of . 151
  - tubercle of . 142
- Choroiditis . 135
  - in myopia . 334
- Choroido-retinitis, syphilitic . 138
- Chromatic aberration . 320
- Chronic glaucoma . 299
- Ciliary arteries . 121
- Ciliary body, anatomy . 119
- Ciliary muscle . 119
- Ciliary, paralysis of . 401
- Ciliary nerves . 123
- Ciliary region, wounds of . 114
- Coloboma of choroid . 154
  - of iris . 154
- Colours, complementary . 229
  - primary . 228
  - of the solar spectrum . 227
- Colour-blindness, congenital . 235
  - frequency of . 242
  - methods of testing . 239
  - total . 236
  - varieties of . 236
- Colour-sense, the . 231
  - Hering's theory of . 233
  - Young's theory of . 232
  - Young-Helmholtz theory of . 233
- Colour-vision, congenital defects of . 235

PAGE

- Colour-vision, normal . . . 227
  - methods of testing . . . 239
- Colours used in testing (plate) . 240
- Concave lenses in myopia . . 332
  - images formed by . . 320
- Concomitant squint . . . 391
  - diagnosis of 393
  - pathology of . . . 391
  - treatment of . . . 395
- Congenital defects of colour-vision 235
- Congenital opaque nerve fibres . 184
- Conical cornea 99
  - operations for . . . 101
- Conjugate foci 315
- Conjunctiva 46
  - amyloid degeneration of . 66
  - xerosis of 67
- Conjunctivitis, catarrhal . . 54
  - diphtheritic 62
  - gonorrhœal 49
  - granular 56
  - membranous . . . 62
  - infantile 49
  - phlyctenular . . . 61
  - purulent 46
- Contagious ophthalmia . . 46
- Convergence in myopia . . 334
- Convergent strabismus . . 338
- Convex lenses, images formed by 319, 320
- Cornea, abscess of . . . 80
  - anatomy of 68
  - astigmatism of . . 373, 327
  - burns of 104
  - epithelioma of . . . 107
  - opacities of 90
  - tattooing 91
  - ulcers of 82
  - wounds of 105
- Couper's ophthalmoscope . . 345
- Cowell's operation for glaucoma . 308
- Crescent, myopic . . 141, 334
- Critchett's, Anderson, operation for cataract 271
- Crossed diplopia 383
- Cupping, glaucomatous . 167, 295
  - physiological . . 167, 176
- Cyclitis 133
- Cylindrical lenses . . . 342
- Cysticercus in vitreous . . 291
- Cysts of orbit 410

PAGE

- DATURIN 353
- Day-blindness . . . *note* 209
- Dermoid cyst 8
- Desmarre's retractor . . . 53
- Detachment of the retina . . 196
- Diabetic cataract . . . 253
- Diabetic retinitis . . . 192
- Dilatation of pupil in glaucoma . 297
- Dioptric system of eye . . 322
- Diphtheritic conjunctivitis . 62
- Diplopia 383
  - crossed 383
  - homonymous . . . 383
  - tests for 383
- Direct method 348
  - as test for refraction . . 360
- Disc, optic 181
  - atrophy of . . 181, 182, 183
  - cupping of . . 167, 176, 295
- Disc, optic, hyperæmia of . . 176
- Dislocation of lens . . . 282
- Distension of frontal sinus . . 406
- Distichiasis 16
- Divergent strabismus . . . 394
- Donders's schematic eye . . 322
- Duboisin 353

- ECTROPION 20
  - Argyll Robertson's operation for 21
  - Dieffenbach's operation for . 23
  - skin grafting for . . . 25
  - Wharton Jones's operation for 22
  - Wolfe's operation for . . 23
- Egyptian ophthalmia . . . 46
- Electro-magnet, Snell's . . 290
- Embolism of the central artery of the retina 185
- Emmetropia 330
- Emphysema of orbit . . . 405
- Entropion 16
  - Arlt's operation for . . 18
- Enucleation of eye . . . 97
- Epicanthus 25
- Episcleritis 55, 111
  - of cornea 107
- Epithelioma of eyelids . . 10
- Erectile tumours of orbit . . 41
- Errors of refraction . . . 330

PAGE

- Eserine 86
  - in glaucoma 305
  - in ulcers of cornea 89
- Exclusion of pupil 126
- Exophthalmic goitre 406
- Exophthalmos, pulsating 412
- Exostoses of orbit 410
- External rectus 379
  - action of 379
  - paralysis of 386
  - tenotomy of 396
- Extraction of cataract 264
- Eye 322
  - dioptric system of 322
  - optical constants of 322
  - optical defects of 326
  - optical properties of 321
  - tension of 294
- Eyelids 1
  - anatomy of 1
  - burns of 26
  - movements of 3
  - physiology of 1

- FALSE image in diplopia 383
- Far-point 336
  - in hypermetropia 336
- Far-point in myopia 331, 355
  - virtual 336
- Fibroma of orbit 410
- Field of fixation 223
  - limits of 224
  - modes of testing 225
- Field of vision 213
  - normal, plate of 216
  - for colours 213, 217
- Fistula of lachrymal sac 44
- Flap operation for cataract 265
- Foreign bodies in cornea 106
  - in eye 290
  - in orbit 413
  - in vitreous 289
- Formula for anterior principal focus 315
  - conjugate foci 315, 316
  - principal focus 314, 318
- Frontal sinus, distension of 406
- Frost's artificial eye 323, 332, 337, 372
- Fulminating glaucoma 299
- Fundus-image test 363

- GLAUCOMA 293
  - acute 299
  - arterial pulsation in 296
  - chronic 299
  - contraction of field in 297
  - cupping in 295
  - dilatation of pupil in 297
  - fulminans 299
  - hæmorrhagic 300
  - primary, Brailey's theory of 301
    - eserine in 305
    - iridectomy in 305
    - pathology of 300
    - Priestley Smith's theory of 301
    - sclerotomy in 307
    - symptoms of 293
    - treatment of 304
    - Weber's theory of 302
  - secondary 309
    - causes of 309
    - symptoms 309
    - treatment of 309
  - subacute 299
  - visual field in (plate) 222
- Glioma of the retina 199
  - diagnosis of 201
  - pathology of 200
  - plate of 200
  - symptoms of 199
- Goitre, exophthalmic 406
- Gonorrhœal ophthalmia 49
- Graefe's linear operation for cataract 267
- Granular conjunctivitis 56
- Graves's disease 406
- Green-blindness 236
- Gumma of ciliary body 151
  - of iris 150
  - of eyelids 12

- HÆMORRHAGES of the optic nerve 184
  - of the retina 187
  - into vitreous 292
- Hæmorrhagic glaucoma 300
- Helmholtz' ophthalmoscope 344
- Hemeralopia *note* 209
- Hemianæsthesia, cerebral 208
  - hysterical 208
- Hemianopsia 206
- Hemiopia 206
  - varieties of 206
  - Charcot's theory of 207
  - plate of 206
  - symptoms of 206

PAGE

- Hering's theory of the colour sense . . . 233
- Heurtleloup's artificial leech . 129
- Holmgren's wools . . . 339
  - Dr. Thomas's arrangements of . . . 242
- Homatropine . . . 354
- Homonymous diplopia . . 383
- Hordeolum . . . 6
- Hyaloid membrane . . 286
- Hyperæmia of disc, plate of . 176
- Hypermetropia . . . 330, 335
  - axial . . . 335
  - accommodation in . . 338
  - convergent strabismus in . 338
  - correction of . . . 375
  - latent . . . 352
  - manifest . . . 352
  - mydriatics in . . 353, 354
  - pathology of . . . 337
  - symptoms of . . . 337
  - virtual image in . . . 364
- Hypopyon . . . 81
- Hysterical hemianæsthesia . . 208

- IMAGE . . . 383
  - false, in diplopia . . 383
  - real . . . 318
  - virtual . . . 318
- Index of refraction . . . 318
- Indirect method as test for refraction . . . 363
- Inferior rectus . . . 388
  - paralysis of . . . 388
- Inoculation for pannus . . 77
- Internal rectus . . . 396
- Internal rectus, anatomy of . 396
  - advancement of . . . 398
  - paralysis of . . . 388
  - tenotomy of . . . 396
- Inverted image . . . 363
  - in emmetropia . . . 348
  - in hypermetropia . . . 363
- Iodoform in purulent ophthalmia 52
- Iridectomy . . . 160
  - for artificial pupil . . 160
  - in glaucoma . . . 305
  - preliminary, for cataract . 265
  - for posterior synechiæ . . 132
- Irideremia . . . 154
- Iridodesis . . . 162
- Iridotomy . . . 162

PAGE

- Iris . . . 154
  - absence of . . . 154
  - coloboma of . . . 154
  - gumma of . . . 150
  - tubercle of . . . 151
- Iritis . . . 124
  - plastica . . . 156
  - rheumatica . . . 127, 130
  - serosa . . . 125
  - suppurativa . . . 127
  - syphilitica . . . 127
  - traumatic . . . 131
  - treatment of . . . 128
- Ischæmia of the retina . . 185

- JAVAL's ophthalmometer . . 373
- Jequirity in pannus . . . 77
- Juler's ophthalmoscope . . 346

- KERATITIS, interstitial . . 71
  - phlyctenular . . . 79
  - punctata . . . 75, 125
  - suppurative . . . 80
- Keratoscopy . . . 365

- LACHRYMAL apparatus . . 29
  - anatomy of . . . 29
  - canaliculi . . . 30
  - ducts . . . 29
  - glands . . . 29
    - cysts of . . . 33
    - extirpation of . . 33
    - fistula of . . . 34
    - hypertrophy of . . 32
    - inflammation of . . 31
  - probes . . . 39
  - sac . . . 30
    - abscess of . . . 37
    - fistula of . . . 44
  - syringe . . . 42
- Lang's ophthalmoscope . . 305
- Laws of refraction . . . 312
- Leech, artificial . . . 129
- Lens, crystalline . . . 246
  - dislocation of . . 250, 282
  - histology of . . . 246
- Lenses . . . 342
  - cylindrical . . . 342
  - numbering of . . . 342
  - trial . . . 341
- Leucocythæmic retinitis . . 192
- Liebreich's operation for cataract 271
- Ligament, suspensory . . . 248

PAGE

- Ligamentum pectinatum, 110
- Line of fixation, 378
  - visual, 378
- Linear operation for cataract, 261
- Lipoma of orbit, 410
- Long-sightedness, 336
- Lymphatics of eye, 123

- MACNAMARA'S operation for cataract, 277
- Macula-lutea, 170
- Malingering, 210
  - modes of detecting, 210
- McHardy's perimeter, 218
- Megalopsia, 210
- Meibomian glands, 2
  - cyst, 6
- Metamorphopsia, 210
- Metrical system of numbering lenses, 342
- Micropsia, 210
- Miliary tubercle of iris and choroid, 151
- Military ophthalmia, 46
- Moll, glands of, 1
- Molluscum contagiosum, 12
- Movements, associated, 380
- Mucocele, 37
- Müller, fibres of, 170
- Muscæ volitantes, 287
- Muscles, 379
  - action of, 379
  - innervation of, 380
  - ocular, 379
  - orbicularis, 1, 2
- Mydriatics, 353, 354
  - in hypermetropia, 353, 354
  - when necessary, 374
- Myopia, 330
  - axial, 330
  - causes of, 333
  - choroiditis in, 334
  - concave lenses in, 356
  - convergence in, 334
  - correction of, 332, 375
  - divergence in, 395
  - emergent rays in, 331
  - 'far-point' in, 355
  - fundus changes in, 330
  - inverted image in, 364
  - pathology of, 333
  - prevention of, 335

PAGE

- Myopia, progressive, 333
  - refractive, 330
- Myopic crescent, 334, 141
- Myosis, 402

- NÆVI, 9
- Nasal duct, 31
  - stricture of, 36
- Needle operation for cataract, 258
- Neuritis, optic, 177
- Night-blindness, 209
- Nodal points, 317, 322
- Nyctalopia, *note* 209
- Nystagmus, 401

- OCCLUSION of pupil, 126
- Ocular muscles, 385
  - paralysis of, 385
- Œdema of orbit, 405
- Onyx, 81
- Opacities of vitreous, 287, 288
- Opaque nerve-fibres, 184, 185
- Operations:
  - for ptosis, 15
  - for trichiasis, 18
  - for entropion, 19
  - for ectropion, 20, 22, 23
  - skin grafting, 26
  - for symblepharon, 27
  - extirpation of lachrymal glands, 33
  - division of canaliculus, 35
  - for pterygium, 65
  - peritomy, 76
  - paracentesis of anterior chamber, 87
  - Sæmisch's, for corneal ulcer, 88
  - tattooing cornea, 91
  - transplantation of cornea, 92
  - enucleation, 97
  - for conical cornea, 101, 102, 103
  - iridectomy, 132, 155
    - for glaucoma, 157
    - for posterior synechia, 131
    - optical, 160, 256
    - preliminary, 265
  - iridodesis, 162
  - iridotomy, 162
  - for cataract (*see* Cataract), 258
  - sclerotomy, 307
  - paracentesis of vitreous, 308
  - for strabismus, 398
- Ophthalmia, catarrhal, 54

PAGE

- Ophthalmia, contagious, 46
  - Egyptian, 46
  - gonorrhœal, 49
  - granular, 56
  - military, 46
  - neonatorum, 49
  - purulent, 46
  - sympathetic, 146
- Ophthalmometer, Javal's, 373
- Ophthalmoscope, 343
  - as test of refraction 360, 362, 363
  - use of, 348
  - varieties of, 344–6
- Optic atrophy, visual field in, plate of, 206, 216
- Optic commissure, decussation in 207
  - disc, 165
  - nerve, anatomy of, 164
    - atrophy of, 181
    - hæmorrhages of, 184
    - sheath, 124, 165
    - source of fibres in, 207
- Optic neuritis, 177
  - causes of, 180
  - pathology of, 179
  - symptoms of, 177
  - theories of, 180
- Optic tracts, source of fibres in, 207
- Optical centre of convex lens, 317
  - constants of eye, 322
  - defects of eye, 326
  - parallax, 296
  - principles, 311
  - properties of eye, 321
- Optometer, Tweedy's, 359
- Ora serrata, 170
- Orbicularis palpebrarum, 2
- Orbit, abscess of, 404
  - cellulitis of, 403
  - cysts of, 410
  - diseases of, 403
  - emphysema of, 405
  - exostoses of, 410
  - fibroma of, 410
  - foreign bodies in, 413
  - injuries of, 413
  - lipoma of, 410
  - œdema of, 405
  - periostitis of, 405
  - sarcoma of, 410
  - scirrhus of, 410
  - tumours of, 409

- PAGENSTECHER'S operation for cataract, 276

PAGE

- Pannus, 57, 76
  - inoculation for, 77
  - jequirity, 77
- Pannus, peritomy for, 76
- Papillitis, 177
- Papillomata of eyelids, 11
- Paracentesis of anterior chamber 87
  - of vitreous chamber, 308
- Parallactic movements of vessels 296
- Parallel displacement, 312
- Paralysis of ciliary muscle, 401
  - of ocular muscles, 385
    - causes of, 386
    - treatment of, 389
  - of ocular nerves, 386–8
- Paralytic strabismus, 385
- Perimeter, the, 215
  - mode of using, 215
  - McHardy's, 218
  - Priestley Smith's, 219
- Perimetric observations, importance of, 221
- Periostitis of orbit, 405
- Peritomy, 76
- Phlyctenular conjunctivitis, 61
  - keratitis, 79
- Physiological cup, plate of, 176
- Pigmentary retinitis, 193, 194
  - plate of visual field in, 222
  - symptoms of, 193
- Pinguecula, 66
- Plastic iritis, 156
- Posterior staphyloma, 142, 334
  - synechia, 131
    - operations for, 131
- Preliminary iridectomy for cataract, 265
- Presbyopia, 324
  - correction of, 326, 377
- Primary colours, 228
  - deviation in strabismus, 385
- Principal axis of lens, 317
  - of spherical surface, 314
- Principal focal plane, 314
  - focus, 314
  - meridians in astigmatism, 339, 357
- Prisms in diplopia, 390
  - refraction by, 313
  - in strabismus, 400
- Probes, lachrymal, 39
- Progressive myopia, 333

PAGE

Projection, false 382
  of image 381
Pseudo-glioma . . . 136, 202, 292
  plate of 200
Pterygium 64
  treatment of 65
Ptosis 14, 387
  Pagenstecher's operation for . 15
Pulsating exophthalmos . . 412
Punctum, displacement of . . 34
  remotum 331
Pupil, Argyll Robertson's . . 402
  exclusion of 126
  movements of 117
  occlusion of 126
Purulent ophthalmia . . . 46
Pyramidal cataract . . . 83

Real image 318
Red-blindness 236
Refraction 330
  errors of 330
  index of 318
  laws of 312
  at plane surface . . . 312
  at spherical surface . 313–6
  methods of estimating . . 350
  through prism 313
Renal retinitis 88
Retina 167
  anatomy of 168
  detachment of 196
  glioma of 199
  inflammation of . . . 88
  ophthalmoscopic appearance of 173
  physiology of 171
  plates of 196
Retinal artery 185
  embolism of 185
Retinal hæmorrhages . . . 187
  ischæmia 185
  pulsation in 175
  veins, pulsation in . . 175
Retinitis 188
  albuminuric 88
  diabetic 192
  leucocythæmic 192
  pigmentosa 193
  syphilitic 192
Retino-choroiditis, syphilitic . 138
Retinoscopy 365

PAGE

Rheumatic iritis . . . 127, 130
Ring scotoma 223
Rodent cancer 10
Rotation, centre of 378
Rupture of choroid . . 143, 186

Sæmisch's operation . . . 88
Sarcoma 12
  of conjunctiva 12
  of choroid 151
  of orbit 410
Scheiner's test 360
Schematic eye 322
Schlemm, canal of 109
Scleritis 110
Sclerotic 109
  anatomy of 109
  ring 167
  rupture of 111
  wounds of 113
Sclerotomy in primary glaucoma . 307
Scotoma 217
  mode of detecting . . . 217
  for colours 218
  ring 223
Secondary axes 318
  deviation in strabismus . 386
  glaucoma 309
Serous iritis 125
Shadow-test 365
  examples 369
  in astigmatism 370
  in hypermetropia . . . 367
  in myopia 367
Simulated amblyopia . . . 210
Skin grafting for ectropion . . 25
Smith's, Priestley, perimeter . 219
Snellen's types . . . 329, 416
Snow-blindness 210
Sparkling synchisis . . . 289
Spasm of accommodation . 338, 352
Spectacles, wearing of . . . 374
Spectrum, solar 227
Spherical aberration . . . 320
Squint (*see* Strabismus)
Staphyloma, anterior . . . 95
  posterior 142, 334
Strabismus 380
  apparent 385
  concomitans 391

INDEX.

PAGE

- Strabismus, measurement of . 394
  - paralytic . 385
- Streatfeild's operation for cataract 271
- Streatfeild-Snellen operation for entropion . 19
- Stye . 6
- Subacute, glaucoma . 299
- Suction operation for cataract . 262
- Superior oblique, paralysis of . 387
- Superior rectus, paralysis of . 388
- Suppurative iritis . 127
- Suspensory ligament . 248
- Sycosis tarsi . 4
- Symblepharon . 27
  - Teale's operation for . 28
  - Wolfe's operation for . 28
- Sympathetic inflammation . 146
  - causes of . 143
  - pathology of . 145, 147
  - treatment of . 148
- Sympathetic irritation . 143, 146
  - ophthalmitis . 146
- Synchisis scintillans . 289
- Synechia, anterior . 83
  - posterior . 126
- Syphilitic choroido-retinitis . 138
  - iritis . 127
  - retinitis . 192
  - ulceration of eyelid . 12

- TARSAL cartilages . 2
  - tumour . 6
- Tattooing . 91
- Taylor's operation for cataract . 271
- Teale's operation for symblepharon . 28
- Tenon, capsule of . 110
- Tension, intraocular . 294
- Tinea tarsi . 4
- Tobacco amaurosis . 203
- Transplantation of cornea . 93
- Trephining cornea . 102
- Trial case . 342
  - frame . 342
  - lenses . 341
    - testing refraction by . 351
- Tubercle of choroid . 142
  - iris . 151
- Tumour of orbit . 409
- Tumours, cavernous . 413
  - erectile . 413

PAGE

- Tweedy's optometer . 359
- Tyrrel's hook . 161

- ULCERS of eyelids, tertiary syphilitic . 12
  - cornea . 82
    - eserine in . 89
    - deep . 82
    - paracentesis in . 87
    - Sæmisch's operation in . 88
    - scraping in . 88
    - serpiginous . 83
    - superficial . 82
    - treatment of . 85
- Ulcer, rodent . 10
- Uveal tract, anatomy of (*see* Choroid) . 114

- VENOUS pulsation . 296
- Violet-blindness . 236
- Virtual image . 318
- Vision, colour-, normal . 227
- Visual acuteness . 328
  - angle . 327
  - axis . 378
  - purple . 234
- Visual field . 213
  - for colours . 216
  - in detachment of retina 222
  - in glaucoma . 222
  - in hemiopia . 223
  - in optic atrophy . 221
  - in pigmentary retinitis . 222
  - limits of . 213
  - in toxic amaurosis . 223
  - modes of testing . 213
- Vitiligo . 9
- Vitreous cells . 287
  - chamber, paracentesis . 308
  - cysticercus in . 291
  - fluidity of . 289
  - foreign bodies in . 289
  - hæmorrhages into . 292
  - humour . 286
  - opacities . 287

- WARLOMONT operation for cataract . 271
- Warts of eyelid . 11
- Weber's canaliculus knife . 35

WEC

PAGE

Wecker's, De, campimètre . . 214
  operation for cataract . . 271
Wolfe's operation for symblepharon 28
Wools, Holmgren's . . . 239
Wounds of ciliary region . . 113
  cornea 105
  sclerotic 113

Xanthelasma palpebrarum . . 9

ZON

PAGE

Yellow spot 170, 174
Yellow spot region, hæmorrhages into 187
Young's theory of the colour-sense 232
Young-Helmholtz theory of the colour-sense 232

Zonule of Zinn 248

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